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THE

# JUNIOR COLLEGE JOURNAL

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WALTER CROSBY EELLS

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# THE JUNIOR COLLEGE JOURNAL

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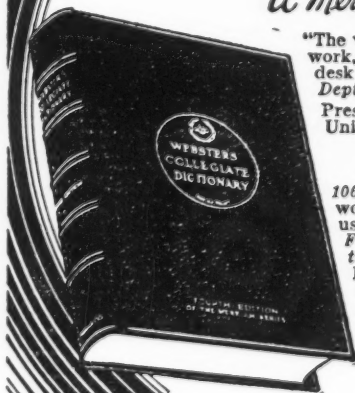
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## Possible Alternatives: The Junior College or—

[EDITORIAL]

"These are times that try men's souls," said Thomas Paine in *The Crisis* a century and a half ago in discussing the War of the Revolution. The same words might be used today just as truly and even more emphatically. We are in the midst of another revolution, bloodless but no less severe and far reaching in its social and economic implications. These, too, are times that try men's souls—the souls particularly of thousands of young people of junior college age who find no harmonious place for themselves in the world of commerce and industry—the souls, too, of educational leaders who are making their best efforts to adjust modern educational offerings to the paradoxical demands of decreased resources and increased needs for educational service.

As a result of our changed and changing economic and social conditions we are coming to a keen realization of the fact that modern business and industry is refusing to absorb young people in any such general fashion as it did in the earlier years of the century. There is every reason to believe that this condition will continue and even be accentuated in the future. The probability is slight that the majority of our young people will find

permanent remunerative positions before they are twenty or twenty-one years of age. Approximately five million young men and young women are enrolled in the high schools of the country. What is to become of the million or more of these who finish high school each year, at the average age of eighteen years? Several alternatives present themselves.

First, we may keep them home in fruitless idleness for two years or more. Ultimately this is sure to prove disastrous as well as uneconomical, for Satan still finds some mischief for idle hands to do. Such an alternative is socially undesirable and impossible as a permanent policy.

Second, we may turn them adrift to wander about aimlessly, hitchhiking across the country, living in box cars and in hobo jungles, at first perhaps genuinely hoping and trying to secure employment, but in the face of repeated and inevitable failures, rapidly developing the conviction that society which will not give them a job at least owes them a living—a debt to be collected by panhandling or by more questionable and vicious means. This alternative is fraught with untold danger to the habits and



attitudes of the rising generation and leads rapidly to vagrancy, irresponsibility, and criminality. It is socially indefensible.

An almost inevitable result of either of the two alternatives just suggested, if they should be seriously adopted on an extensive scale, will be a third. We may take care of increasing thousands of ambitious eager high-school graduates in reform schools and penitentiaries. Such institutions, however, have not been noted in the past as the best training schools for constructive citizenship. Besides, they are too expensive for extensive use, in many cases the cost being from \$2,000 to \$3,000 per inmate.

Fourth, we may adopt a national policy of universal compulsory military training for a period of two years. There are some advantages to such a plan for the individual as well as for the State, but it is so thoroughly un-American, so at variance with all of our traditions and history in times of peace, that it will not receive serious consideration of a majority of our people. It, too, would prove a heavy drain on the federal treasury.

A fifth alternative is to place additional hundreds of thousands in soil and forestry work in CCC camps in all parts of the country. There are decided limitations, however, to the number of such projects which can be efficiently administered. It, too, is relatively expensive, costing the federal government in the vicinity of \$1,000 per man. It is noteworthy also that the CCC program had been in existence but a short time when it was discovered that an essential element had been overlooked. An educational program as well as an industrial one

was found to be indispensable in the camps. An extensive educational machinery has been set up within the past year, with an educational director in each camp. The regional director for one of the largest army administrative areas recently told the writer that the educational program being introduced was essentially a junior college program, suitably adapted and modified to fit the special conditions existing in the CCC camps.

A sixth, and final, alternative then remains. As President Hutchins, of the University of Chicago, said recently:

I see no escape from the proposition that the future will bring the same increase in junior college enrollment that the high school has experienced and that these organizations must offer instruction adapted to the students in them. . . . Whether we like it or not, we must accommodate the young people of the country up to their eighteenth or twentieth year. Industry will not absorb them earlier.

America, in self-defense if from no more praiseworthy motive, will be compelled to care for hundreds of thousands and even millions of additional young people who will continue their formal education at least two years beyond the high school. This will necessarily be in the junior college or in some equivalent institution. There is no place else for them to go. The existing colleges and universities are not sufficient in number, in size, nor in type of instruction offered for such a variant group of "all the children of all the people."

In the local junior college the young men and young women of the nation will have an opportunity to complete a higher level of educa-

tion under home conditions and to prepare themselves not only to earn a better living but to live a better life than would be possible under the other alternatives outlined above—a life of greater usefulness to society and of greater satisfaction to themselves. And this can be done at a fraction of the expense, to society and to the government, involved in any of the other alternatives suggested. Possibly the federal government, in the present crisis which is so severely trying men's souls, could make no better investment for the future security of the nation than to grant subsidies (only a fraction of the per capita amounts being invested in the CCC camps or of the larger per capita amounts being invested in the penitentiaries) to assure every young man and young woman, not otherwise profitably employed, of the opportunity to spend two years beyond the high-school level in an institution of the junior college type with a curriculum not copied from the university but adjusted to their own individual abilities and needs, a curriculum designed primarily to train them "for social citizenship in American civilization."

WALTER CROSBY EELLS

Despite isolated attacks and too frequent experiences that can be enumerated, the American people have determined that the elementary and high school shall be free public institutions. They have not so determined that higher education shall be free to all. In the light of our historic tradition of free education, evidence that youth will increasingly be barred from the eco-

nomic life, and of the need of more education to carry on our institutional life, and of our material wealth to support more education, can we say that the American nation has decided to limit free educational opportunities to twelve years of schooling? Can a democratic nation depend for its own existence upon the discarded theory of education that twelve years of schooling will provide enough of intellectual stimulation to guarantee learning and adequate adaptations throughout life? Can a democracy that is rapidly displacing an outworn economic theory of rugged individualism, hold to an analogous theory in education? The public junior college is and will be the front line of the struggle between the advocates of democracy and dictatorship.—DEAN J. J. OPPENHEIMER, University of Louisville.

A junior college offers opportunity for very valuable personal guidance of the student. In fact, junior colleges are designed largely to give that guidance. Many a boy or girl who has not yet found himself on leaving high school is aided during the junior college years in making important decisions regarding his life work and his future course of action. Many go on to college degrees who would have left school at the end of the high-school period but for the junior college to bridge the gap. Don't misunderstand, a junior college is in no way an inferior college. It is simply a college that offers two years of work instead of four.—PRESIDENT FLORENCE E. BOEHMER, Cottey College.

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## The Educational Outlook

GEORGE W. RIGHTMIRE\*

The principle is well established in the United States that we must furnish an educational opportunity for every child. This does not go back to the beginning of the English settlement, but it did receive currency at an early stage along the Atlantic seaboard, and in the middle western country the principle was firmly established by the middle of the nineteenth century. In Ohio, for instance, this principle became effective in school legislation about 1854, and although we have not in our performance equaled in all respects the intrinsic force of this principle, yet we have more closely approached it as time has passed. Our lapses have not been tainted with premeditation and therefore it may be accepted for Ohio, as well as practically every state in the Union.

In furnishing this opportunity for the children we have been forced to answer, from time to time, the question, "What shall we teach?" and our answer has varied with the passage of the years, so as to keep in step with the development of the life of the times. A quick survey of the last hundred years shows that life in this country is in constant flux, and the thoughts and the practices

of one era do not suffice for its successors. We have also constantly been confronted with the question, "How shall we teach?" although that has lagged behind the development of subject-matter.

### A BRIEF RETROSPECT

In pursuing our subject, let us take a brief retrospect of our educational program and progress. Certain stages are well marked in our advancement, of which the first may be designated as the "pioneer" era. This advances with exploration and settlement as a wave from east to west across the country; in its wake, especially in the east, comes the "industrial" era, when population tends to concentrate in urban centers. Then follows the "agrarian" era, especially in the mid-western and western country, and this is followed everywhere, so far as that appears to be more profitable, by an industrial civilization. This brings us then to the "commercial-industrial" present, and I think we may truthfully say that the United States today is a "commercial-industrial" nation, but, at the same time, has a tremendous area devoted primarily to agricultural interests.

The development of the educational program, therefore, through these years has kept in mind the expansion and the direction of industry and business, with the resulting concentration of the population in urban communities, and a

\* President, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio. Dinner address at annual meeting of the American Association of Junior Colleges, Columbus, Ohio, February 23, 1934. Received too late for publication with proceedings of the annual meeting of the Association in the May 1934 issue of the *Junior College Journal*.



wider distribution of the population into rural communities. Rapidly the population of the country has become urban and has progressively ceased to be rural, so that today at least two-thirds of the people live in cities or under urban conditions and the remaining one-third under rural conditions. These living conditions quickly reflect themselves in the ways of living, social appreciation, and educational requirements, and we have tried to keep the program of education in step.

#### STAGES IN CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

In the elementary schools we started with a bare minimum of subjects intended for daily use, symbolized by the "Three R's." We soon had to pass beyond that stage and added some "information subjects," about matters which became necessary in the daily lives of the people because of the increase of travel and the spread of information through newspapers and books. After a period we found that the children needed "expression subjects" in order to develop all of their capacities and fit them for the more highly concentrated life of the urban communities. We reached the point where it was keenly realized that the whole individual must be cultivated, and that he must be made capable of living the "full life." We are continuing to act upon these principles in selecting and organizing and presenting the subject-matter dealt with in the elementary schools. We have, generally speaking, placed the emphasis on the individual and his development.

In the secondary schools development has gone on somewhat dif-

ferently; in the beginning the schools aped the classical colleges and were intended largely to fit young people for attendance at such colleges. The residents of the community, however, in time, became weary of supporting a high school which apparently did nothing practical, and fifty years ago the battle was fought out between the cultural and the practical in these schools. The result was that strictly vocational subjects came in so that the boys and girls in high school might prepare for engaging in certain gainful occupations outside. These vocational subjects have undergone considerable spread and have become very popular, and many high-school pupils look forward only to a preparation for a vocation in life. These subjects give us principally what might be designated as industrial arts and commercial studies. Later the "expression subjects" also came into the high schools in great numbers and today they occupy a very important place in the curriculum. Such subjects as dramatics, fine arts, music, dancing, drawing, design in costume and millinery, and home economics are very popular and help in rounding out the educational development of the boy and girl in the high school.

The colleges and universities have likewise made a steady development in their subject-matter field, and in addition to the classical languages and liberal studies which featured the colleges long ago, we now have teacher-training courses, training in technical fields, training for particular professions, and research work, all proceeding on a generous basis. Almost any liberal arts college today has teacher-training and commercial studies,

and the modern university contains the full complement mentioned.

This brief recital shows that the subject-matter found in our educational institutions has been changing, has been expanding, and has been steadily influenced by the purpose of fitting the student either to continue his education further or to finish his school work at a certain point. Always the completion of high school has terminated the formal education of many of our young people and the completion of four years in the college or university has been a terminal station for many more. In recent years another finishing point has come emphatically into public thinking, namely, at the end of two years of normal college work; and the junior college has come in to make its contribution at that point.

The consideration I am mentioning is only one of a number which have been forcibly brought to the front and is responsible today for the tremendous development of the junior college movement, and your gathering here shows with what diligence, intelligence, and purpose you of the junior colleges are planning for curricular development and are seriously considering methods of teaching. You have a complicated problem in that you must present terminal courses as well as progressive courses which prepare the student for entrance into the senior colleges. You are endeavoring to reach highest quality performance on both these levels and your program is so complicated and so worth while that it will continue to evoke your best efforts in planning and your greatest courage in performing. The entire educational scheme in America through the

years shows an increasing expansion, an increasing complexity, but it has never lost sight of the ultimate purpose of preparing the student for effective living and the highest degree of personal satisfaction.

#### THE COMMERCIAL-INDUSTRIAL ERA

Let us glance at some of the features of the commercial-industrial era mentioned above.

Stuart Chase and other writers, including the researchers in the field of technocracy, have shown us the material effects of unlimited competition in many fields and of virtual monopoly in a few fields, and nothing can be added here to the picture which these writers present. A few characteristics of this era stand out, however, and we may note specialized labor as one of them. This includes the factory hand, the skilled worker, and the large administrative and clerical staffs, popularly known as "white collar" people, both in and about the industrial plant and in the urban offices where salesmanship and production planning are cultivated in a most skillful fashion. The workers, skilled and unskilled, the clerical staff, and a host of administrators, are inseparable from industry and commerce as they are being carried on today.

The concentration of the population in urban centers is a second distinct mark of the development of industry in the last quarter century, the percentage figures of urban and rural population practically reversing themselves in that period of time. A third mark of this era is the development of communication and transportation. All

of these have many commercial and social effects. This is the first time I have used the word "social" in this address, and I must dwell upon it for a moment.

"Social" is a term of comprehensive import in these times; it is a passport for every movement today; it is a test of fitness for every educational proposal. It is a criterion unerring, but of such elastic application that it sadly needs definition; it is an overworked term, something like "contact," which was formerly a wholesome verb, but has in recent years been changed into an omnipresent noun, and has its plural also. We might illustrate this overworking with the term "co-operation" which in the last few years has had very wide vogue. "Service" also came in for tremendous use and is very virile and is holding on tenaciously today. "Social" is merely going the same round as the others with probably a larger field of application and a more impressive and ominous emphasis.

As a term applied to education it is intriguing but difficult—how difficult we shall more adequately appreciate after listening to Dewey and Bode and Rugg and Coe! Almost any current volume dealing with education and making any pretense at all of developing theory and pointing directions uses the term "social" from six to twelve times on a page and it is therefore highly essential that we know what scope the writers are giving to it. Certainly it implies "effect upon others" of any educational proposal; personal interest alone is insufficient and individual benefits are not conclusive. To be "social" a proposal must not be antagonistic

to group, or community, or general good. The educational literature of today is studded with this term and we must warn ourselves that it is not a panacea; it has sprung into such extensive use because it does emphasize indispensable characteristics of educational as well as civic and industrial programs. It is a kind of measuring stick by which we appraise any proposal in these fields. So we must be constantly on the lookout for social implications and we must strive for greater clarity in appraising the scope of the term. Certainly we must not be swept off our feet and inconsiderately fall into line in support of a proposal which is tagged "social," merely because it is so marked. The use of the term does not relieve us in any wise from carefully weighing all the elements in an educational or other type of program today, although it frequently has had a lulling, mellifluous effect upon the hearer.

#### GREAT EXPANSION IN EDUCATION

That was a memorable decade from 1920 to 1930 and it brought forth tremendous expansion in the study program in the schools on all levels; likewise in buildings, and we recall that the high-school building accommodating from 1,500 to 2,500 students is not at all uncommon in our cities, nor is a cost of from one to two million dollars for such high schools at all unusual. The universities likewise experienced a building inspiration, and some large universities in this country were entirely rebuilt and moved into and dedicated as complete plants, illustrating preferred types of architecture. Further, the



equipment provided for the schools showed a progressive variety and an improvement in quality and adaptability, giving a maximum efficiency to the school buildings. The financial support accorded to the educational program in this decade grew enormously; taxes multiplied, bonds flourished, and all the evidences of credit were utilized to a very full extent. But all of this material support which came flooding in for the educational program was intended to take care of the ever-advancing enrollment; high schools doubled their enrollment over and over, and the colleges and universities did likewise. Although as we look at the figures, expenditures in all directions for educational plants and maintenance and personal service seemed tremendous, yet the increase here was no more striking than in industry or in commerce or in many of the activities in which humanity was gleefully and prosperously engaged in this decade. With all the expenditure, school buildings are not *too* comfortable, nor *too* palatial, the equipment all went into immediate and beneficial use, and the public-school buildings and universities and colleges are the pride of the community.

Then in 1930 came the climax and the collapse of the era. Immediately, in the pinch of financial stringency, people began to look about for ways of retrenchment, and among other things they took a careful look at education on a public foundation. When the figures of a whole decade are thrown on the screen at once, the audience becomes very critical and feels that educational support has been burdensome and extravagant. On look-

ing further, the public seemed to conclude that notwithstanding our educational ideals and opportunities, the mass of the people are lacking in various respects which ostensibly the educational program should have supplied. Of course, there were many hasty expressions of opinion and many immature judgments, but the criticisms carried enough substance with them to call for sharp attention, and education at once came in for critical scrutiny. We criticized, we began to neglect, and we did both on a grand scale.

The depression seemed to reduce us to a state of bewilderment; large numbers of people seemed to be swayed by temperament, by surface impressions, by appeals to try novel experiments, and we acted like a people emotionally unstable. It was freely declared if education was accomplishing its purposes these things should not be, and therefore education must be at fault.

It was also apparent that there was a vast ignorance of economics—of the most simple principles of the science; it was seen that fundamental operations of insurance and banking, upon which not only the present but the future of multitudes of citizens depend, were shrouded by a kind of mystery. They were not well understood by the very people whom they were expected to support and to benefit. The finances of industry and the whole field of business securities were closed books to many of our people who had had the advantages of the American educational system and we were found to be ignorant in these matters and on the whole quite gullible, and obsessed with the philosophy of "taking a chance."

These conditions and situations were not expected as proper products of a long period of universal education, and we were shocked and irritated by our ignorance of industrial methods and the emerging lack of any planned economy for industry or business or our vast natural resources.

It was also painfully evident that many of our citizens were not responsive to fundamental civic requirements, for example, taxation, obedience to law, honest efficiency in positions of trust, public and private; and these delinquencies were so common as to give an alarming color to the social picture. It was also apparent that in a large number of our people there was no thorough knowledge of our government, or a proper sense of individual opportunity and responsibility therefor, and this situation seemed to prevail with reference to county, city, state, and federal government. The greatest proficiency we seemed to possess was with reference to federal government and here for several years we have been almost gleefully voting amendments to the Constitution. We seemed to feel ourselves adequate to the strain of deciding what the federal constitution ought to be and how it ought to be changed, although we were continuing to show a magnificent ineptitude for local government. This seemed astounding inasmuch as one of the fundamental calls upon civic virtue is efficiency in local government, but, surprisingly, at this point our break-down seemed to be the worst.

It also seemed, when in the depths of the depression we took the time to look around and commiserate with each other and

therefore saw more things to be righted than we had usually been seeing, that many of our citizens had gotten into almost a habit of placing supine dependence upon government for elemental support and for leadership. This condition was growing upon us and assumed alarming proportions in our helpless effort to extricate ourselves from the depression, as well as in our rather futile attempt to find out how we got into it and in our vaporous plans for getting out of it.

#### IS EDUCATION A FAILURE?

In this time the American people became unnerved, even bordering upon hysteria, and every condition that was bad at all looked worse perhaps than it really was, and therefore the attempt to blame the trouble upon some institution or some practice may have been excusable. But not all of our thinking about our plight was of this character, and most sober and considerate thought on the part of many people seemed to indicate a failure in our educational system. In our desperation we raised many questions and especially did we ask ourselves whether the schools had been worthy of the large sums of money required to carry them forward. We even wondered whether our whole democratic scheme was a failure; and since in our thinking democracy is based upon universal opportunity for education resulting in universal acceptance of responsibility and appreciation of opportunity in carrying it forward, then if education wobbles democracy topples! In other countries the prophets of a New Order busily enlist the schools, and this is true in

the establishment of the Soviet government, Fascism, and, recently, Hitlerism. The principles of the new government, the purposes, the participation of citizens, and especially the conviction that the new system is the right system—all of this is being enforced in the schools in those countries, on the theory that what is taught well to the children in the schools becomes foundational in their later thinking and action, and if a country is to have enthusiastic and efficient citizens there is no better way of producing them than through the activities of the schools, which are under the control of the governmental authorities. The question inevitably occurs whether we can do as well with democracy in our schools; also whether we should undertake to indoctrinate our young people as they are indoctrinated in these foreign countries.

We realize that democracy has up to date inevitably possessed certain elements such as individualism and capitalism. Individual opportunity has gone hand in hand with a profit system of industry and economic organization, and although there are numerous critics of this system, yet we have practiced it in the United States hopefully and generally speaking with acceptable popular results, and only in the last four years has it come most seriously into the arena of critical debate on a large scale. Today it is not unusual to see the whole system questioned and even vigorously attacked and it has become quite the current thing to agitate for some other system, such as socialism, or communism, or other "isms," and the American mind today is much agitated about

whether some variant in our scheme of government is not inescapable. Our hold on democracy has been weakening and we have come to feel that really we stand at Armageddon, and some of us are trying desperately to justify democracy, while others of us are zealously engaged in showing that there must be some way of escape into socialism or something else; even Soviet Communism is hopefully urged upon us.

Many of us have felt that the chief thing wrong was our failure to inculcate in the minds of our young people an abiding understanding of, and faith in, democracy as we have it. But inevitably we must ask ourselves whether, and how far, the schools can give training in such vital matters as government, social responsibility, principles of fundamental economics and finance, and industrial organization and operation. Further, we ask how far can the schools integrate literature, art, language, history, philosophy into individual experience so as to make of them all tools for the day's work or its pleasure or its recreation. Then we come to the question whether we have been unsuccessful in inculcating these essentials of fine citizenship, or whether we have really not tried!

#### UNIVERSAL EDUCATION ESSENTIAL

How serious is the business of education anyway? We must remember that we have always linked our hope for democracy to universal education and have built our educational program upon that conception. When we read the famous letter of Macaulay written to an American correspondent in 1857,



we are impressed with the clarity of vision and vigor of expression with which he shows the inevitable downfall of our democracy and with which he delineates the circumstances surely evolved from our normal development, which he makes to underlie that prophesied downfall. Our antidote to the inescapable subversion, as Macaulay saw it, is universal education! This never entered Macaulay's mind, he had no conception of a people universally educated at public expense, nor did he have a conception of anybody governing a country except a governing class. Widespread popular education and corresponding widespread popular interest in and responsibility for government were not on Macaulay's calendar, and although we are tremendously impressed with his thinking yet we at once obviate its result by crying out that our democracy is based upon universal education from which the citizen will inevitably derive the proper appreciation of civic opportunities and responsibilities and will just as inevitably measure up to the civic requirement at any particular time. In support of this, let me say that for decades in these United States our reliance upon schools has been basic, in fact it has been almost pathetic. But within the last four years we have seen many economic and social conditions of hardship, disappointment, and ruin, which we are at a loss to explain and somehow we have charged it up to an inept system of universal education! It has become a fashion recently to turn upon these schools almost savagely for their alleged failures, or to turn away from them impotently, because of our inability to avoid the

economic disaster or to find the way out of it. In our inabilities and futilities we have been in much haste to ascribe it to the failure of our public school system.

We have been forgetful of the fact that the American youth and citizen comes under many influences which are powerful in his life other than the formal education of the schools. It may even be that the schools have been doing their work well, and yet the other educative and training influences may have perverted it. I refer to the play upon the individual today of unlimited radio, of a great variety of moving pictures, many of which contain nothing which is stimulating or constructive, and the constant beating upon the American mentality of the press which brings news, expresses opinions, and formulates individual thinking to a remarkable extent and is perhaps primarily at the bottom of what is called public opinion. These three great influences are powerful factors in the lives of most of our citizens, and if our citizenship has shown a falling away from effectiveness and appreciation of governmental responsibility, it may not all, or even a large part thereof, be due to any lack in the educational system—it may be due to these other powerful influences which play with little discrimination upon our lives. Perhaps these are more important factors in bringing information and creating attitudes and suggesting our thinking. Nevertheless we are now specifically charged with the duty of making a skillful diagnosis of the educational scheme and placing an unmistakable emphasis upon certain vital features thereof; but let us rely

upon the schools to select these vital elements in our civilization and to integrate them appropriately into the educational structure.

#### FUNCTIONS OF THE SCHOOL

From what I have said above at the opening of this address I think it is clear that the purpose all along has been to put the work of the school in touch with life. In the beginning we have the very simple curriculum, expanded later by "information subjects" made necessary by the development of our community life, and a little later we have the introduction of "expression subjects." These helped to round out the training of the pupil or student and gave him a more intimate touch with the daily life around him, and made him, therefore, more responsive to the life of the times. In other words, the whole purpose was to keep the school in step with social living developments, as well as to equip the mentality of the student with those branches of learning which would be of the most use to him in his daily experiences. The vocations, the techniques, the professions, were in due time added to the burden of the schools, to make them function more adequately as agencies for the preparation of the individual for living, as well as for making a living. It is clear that this expansion of the offering of the schools on all levels has been made in response to the demands of everyday life and the school has therefore been recognized as the fitting or training agency for life in the community later. Somehow we took it for granted that such preparations would have as their by-

product good citizenship, but in this I think we have been disappointed.

The physical sciences have been responsible for tremendous physical and material development in the fields of industry, and business of all sorts, but they have not shown us how to live. Under their impact as well as under their inspiration, we have prospered marvelously in our means of living. We see more plainly today than ever before, however, that we have not adequately thought through the ends of living. Certainly these are not taught through the medium of physical sciences. We are then forced to call upon the social sciences for training in the proper ends of life, for the spiritual forces which will carry us forward in the acquisition of culture and in the building of character. But along with all this there must go indispensably the kinds of training which will make us as citizens keenly alive to the opportunities and responsibilities of democracy, and will equip us with a discriminating conception of economics, the place of industry and labor and capital in our civilization, and the financial structure and devices upon which our industrial civilization has been largely built. We must be wise about these things, and we must be wise and alert and effective about democracy. The two go together inseparably and somehow they must get into the training of youth if we are to succeed!

What better agency is there for training in these directions than the schools? Is such training the proper function of the schools? I believe it is and I believe so emphatically. But this type, or these types,

of training are not incidental functions of the schools; they are in reality in this democracy the chief functions. They must be placed in our school program positively and with serious emphasis. Their benefits cannot flow as a by-product from some other school interest or activity. We cannot say that, like culture as some people view it, these results come out of training in any subject or study; I do not believe that culture thus results and certainly if it does the definition of culture must be changed. Culture I cannot conceive of as accruing from the study of just any subject, nor can I conceive of good citizenship and proper conceptions of economics, finance, industry, labor, and investments as coming out of just any course of study. Instead, they must be diligently sought for and must be taught positively. And since, as I see it, they are indispensable in the proper life of our people, they are just as indispensably a part of our school offerings. These are definite essentials in modern life; they do not result from other study; they must be conscientiously pursued. We have waited all too long for them as incidents!

Here is a call for an educational genius!—to give these essentials stimulating lodgment in the program for the high school, the junior college, the senior college, and in any scheme for adult education—certainly in any publicly supported scheme. These must be conscious aims of the school program on all levels, but especially should such essentials be made a stirring part of the study of the high-school pupil. Then they must be continued in a broader and more impressive way in the junior college and

thereafter in the senior college. Our young men and women of the future must know more of democratic government, they must keenly appreciate the fact they themselves are both government and governed, and they must be left in no doubt that governmental and industrial and social welfare are in their hands. There must be a seriousness about these subjects permeating the school program.

The discussion I have been making has loud echoes in the field of teacher-training; we have been soft pedaling substantial learning in our teacher-training and have been loud pedaling methodology and have devoted detailed attention to the method of teaching each particular subject. This is correct and laudable so far as it goes, but it should be rather the incidental feature of the training of teachers. The call now is indubitably for less emphasis upon techniques and educational organization and more rigid insistence upon subject-matter and learning. Learning in the fields of which I have been making particular mention must enter strongly into the courses of study pursued by a prospective teacher. I have not taken the time to state specifically how these indispensable subjects may be taught nor just what form they should assume, nor do I know that I am capable of doing so. The ingenuity of the presidents, principals, and teachers sitting before me in the junior college organization will, I think, be adequate for this task. If I have been able to focus burning attention upon the nexus of Democracy, Industry, and the Social Order, and the functions of the school in reference to them, I shall be very happy indeed.

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## Public Relations in the Junior College Field

ROBERT E. HARRIS\*

### NEED FOR PUBLIC ESTEEM

Any attempt to think of the junior college in relation to its public leads, unfortunately, straightway to ambiguities and doubts. As a recognized unit of public instruction in the United States the junior college has only begun to exist.

How, therefore, can the junior college make itself known to the public mind? Having succeeded in some quarters in gaining taxpayers' support for this relatively new institution, proponents of junior college education, along with other school administrators, have worried much during the past few years about the permanency of their venture. School officials everywhere have found their confidence in the public's growing faith in education shaken by the social-economic uncertainties of the present. Certainly there has been cause for alarm. Admittedly there is urgent need of interpreting to today's world the aims and necessities of modern education. The junior college, by reason of its recency and comparative obscurity, faces an especially difficult task in doing this. What, precisely, are its aims? How does it justify its presence as an integral part in the American educational pattern?

It would seem, consequently, that the first step in establishing the junior college favorably in the public

mind would be the working out of a common aim of junior college education. That no such objective has as yet been crystallized, that instead widely divergent and, in some instances, conflicting educational theories abound in institutions above the high-school level, is revealed by the most cursory examination of junior college curricula and scholastic standards. Whether the two-year institution should be preparatory to upper-division university entrance, whether it is destined to become an institution for the teaching of semi-specialized trades and vocations, or whether it should be developed as a higher level of general secondary education—these disagreements have yet to reach a satisfactory compromise. Meanwhile junior colleges continue to embrace one or all three of these purposes. Patently, then, if junior college educators are themselves confused, it is not remarkable that their public is apathetic and uninformed.

The junior college movement, however, even in its present inchoate form, can and does justify itself in terms of social control and of significant contributions to youth. Despite its handicaps and its recognized shortcomings, it is doing a better job of education for citizenship in a changing democracy than the layman now suspects or appreciates. It is tending enormously to remedy social maladjustments in young men and young women of

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college age. Its services to these young people have been worthy, its influence upon them far-reaching, considering the short period it can keep them within its halls. Even though its aims may at this moment lack complete clarity and unity, the junior college has filled a gap in our public school system. It has developed, moreover, at a time of society's greatest need for prolonging school years.

Because of the many benefits it has made possible, the junior college deserves a better place in public esteem. The means and measures by which that esteem may be won must be considered and enacted by all those who believe in the junior college and want to see it realize its rightful destiny.

#### WHO IS JUNIOR COLLEGE "PUBLIC"?

Educators, like business men, are quick to sense the importance of salesmanship. Nearly every large university supports a publicity director as a member of its regular staff and engages openly—in fact, competitively—in the business of advertising its wares. The public has been given its bread and circuses by schools and churches as well as by the radio-advertising manufacturer and the politician. Although pretending to hold himself and his institution aloof from the contaminating mob, the college administrator has been forced to acquiesce in the tawdry practice of pandering to cheap tastes. Likewise he has become hypersensitive to cheap criticism. Is it possible, therefore, that our schools and colleges and universities have drifted so far along the main stream of post-war American life that they can no longer resist the popular currents

of propaganda, avarice, and stupidity? Are we as bankrupt of positive leadership in education as in other social institutions? Have educators evolved any criteria by which to determine the true ideal of democracy? In the complex affairs of today do our schools know how, or where, or with what, to align themselves?

The answer to most of these questions is that educational authorities have made two salient mistakes: first, they have failed to distinguish between the imaginary public and the real public; and second, they have failed to provide an instrumentality by which they may obtain a better understanding of public affairs. There are, in the judgment of the writer, adequate grounds for these assertions. The nation-wide fate suffered by school budgets in the hands of panicky legislators goaded by minority tax groups bears witness to the ineffectiveness of the typical publicity strategy of educational institutions during the past decade. The public which has crowded the football stadium, which has demanded the bread and applauded the circuses—where have these "friends of education" been hiding while subversive groups have slashed teachers' salaries, lopped weeks and months off the school calendar, and deprived youth of growing opportunities? Have the public relations of schools and colleges been so expertly handled if in times of stress "the public" walks out when its moral support is most needed? Would not American education today be in a healthier shape had its leaders paid less attention to the caterwaulings of "the public" and invited, instead, the friendly counsel of the only "public" that

really matters in school affairs—the interested patron?

No one would suggest, of course, that educators should become insensitive to what we erroneously call "public opinion." And yet it is doubtful if the mass knows how the schools should be run or what should be taught in the classroom. Although the mass mind, knowing nothing about operating a drug store or running an automobile factory, may have influenced by its prejudices the latest fashions in cosmetics or the shopworn immutability of basic motor car design—although, for better or worse, competitive business has cultivated by incessant advertising a mass appetite for standardized products, there is no reason why education should commit the same folly. By evolving an intelligent public relations program the schools may be able to win back much lost ground. At the same time they must purge themselves of the old desires. It is possible for education to eschew the grossness of the profit-takers and yet win public support. First, however, the school public must be unmistakably defined, clearly recognized. Walter Lippmann has written in this connection, "The public is not, as I see it, a fixed body of individuals. It is merely those persons who are interested in an affair and can affect it only by supporting or opposing the actors."<sup>1</sup>

The school public, therefore, is the school group, a group composed chiefly of students, teachers, and parents, to which might be added a scattering of interested citizens.

<sup>1</sup> Walter Lippmann, *The Phantom Public* (New York, The Macmillan Company, 1927), p. 77.

<sup>2</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 197.

The active group in school affairs is the school group. It is "the public" with which the majority of school problems originate. Barring the possibility of state indoctrination, it is the only "public" likely to contribute ponderably to educational ideology. Yet has its importance been recognized by the institution it serves and which in turn is served by it? In all fairness we must admit that many educators have overlooked the true school public.

Possibly the time is coming—if it has not already arrived—when school officials may find it the better part both of wisdom and valor to respect this particular public. They have listened too long to the clamor of demagogues, they have been forced to surrender too often to the self-seeking demands of minority groups falsely representing themselves as makers of public opinion. It is time they realized the truth of Mr. Lippmann's observation, when he says, "I have conceived the public opinion to be, not the voice of God, nor the voice of society, but the voice of the interested spectators of action."<sup>2</sup> It is these "interested spectators" who will determine the future of education in the United States. It is probable, moreover, that they will determine the future of our government as well. If there is asked of them—of the students and teachers, particularly—an intelligent loyalty, the sort of loyalty which carries with it not merely the privilege, but the duty, to criticize both the school and the state, there is bright hope that this school public may prove the strongest bulwark of democracy. But if there is repression, rather than evocation, of teacher-student-patron interest, the

forces of reaction which liberal-minded educators have fought against may yet prevail.

The school official who has sought only praise from his school public has shut himself in from realities. Modern business and industry, whatever its shortcomings, has made a virtue of criticism, has, in fact, paid for it. Consider the enormous investments made by great manufacturing concerns in testing laboratories and proving grounds where products might be subjected to every conceivable critical analysis. Contrast this progressiveness with the attitude of the schoolmaster who says to his subordinates, "Make your criticism constructive," which means, of course, "Do not criticize." To this admonition has been added lately the scare of radicalism, so that in many institutions both instructors and students are made to feel that they must refrain from thought and discussion upon the challenging issues of the day. There is, then, a need for schools not only to recognize and respect their true public, but to safeguard its freedom, for "freedom of speech is just as important as the maintenance of order."<sup>3</sup>

#### COUNSELING ON PUBLIC RELATIONS

It is because they are compelled to act without a reliable picture of the world, that governments, schools, newspapers and churches make such small headway against the more obvious failings of democracy, against violent prejudice, apathy, preference

for the curious trivial as against the dull important, and the hunger for side-shows and three legged calves.<sup>4</sup>

These words of Mr. Lippmann's strike at the core of what has been mentioned as the second mistake of present educational administration. Now we must, of course, concede that the school would have a difficult job indeed in obtaining "a reliable picture of the world." But with proper counseling on public relations, schools and colleges may begin to obtain a more comprehensive picture of public affairs, which would constitute a great advancement. Education would thus be provided with a channel by which social forces might find more articulate expression. It has been only recently, however, that the work of the public relations counsel has come into prominence. The press agent and the publicity man are familiar figures. Even small schools unable to afford a full-fledged publicity director have utilized the gratis services of a teacher or group of students to send out news items about scholastic activities. Such services, naturally, have enabled "the public" to get a better picture of the school. Again, however, it should be emphasized that this publicity has reached the *school* public, not the "phantom" mass of which Mr. Lippmann writes. Little thought has been given, on the other hand, to a reversing of this system: the gathering by the school of news of the outside world. An important function of public relations counseling is to assimilate for school officials this information about public affairs while at the same time acquainting the school public with the activities of education.

<sup>3</sup> W. Brooke Graves, editor, *Readings in Public Opinion* (New York, D. Appleton & Company, 1928), p. 208.

<sup>4</sup> Walter Lippmann, *Public Opinion* (New York, The Macmillan Company, 1930), p. 365.

It is not far fetched to imagine that in the near future schools and colleges will create within their administrative organization the post of public relations counsel. The junior college, since it represents a new trend in education, would do well to pioneer in this direction. In the small junior college the position of public relations counsel might be combined with that of vice-principal or dean. Perhaps, in fact, some communities might more economically establish such an office to serve the entire school system, in which case the public relations counsel would represent the elementary and high-school units as well as the junior college. In larger institutions a separate position of administrative rank might be assigned to a faculty member who has had experience in journalism, social welfare, advertising, and public speaking. Eventually, teacher-training institutions might provide a special graduate curriculum for those wishing to qualify as public relations counselors.

According to one authority, the public relations counsel is one who "directs and supervises the activities of his clients wherever they impinge upon the daily life of the public."<sup>5</sup> He is, in other words, more than a publicity man, for he must prove a keen diagnostician of public symptoms. It is as much a part of his business to prevent unfavorable public reactions as it is to circumvent or offset them. He gives advice on actions which affect the public, and he understands the practical use of all mediums of reaching

the public, i.e., the lecture platform, the club gathering, the pulpit, the radio, the daily press, direct mail or exhibition, in fact all forms of communication.

The person serving as public relations counselor for the junior college should, for example, spend considerable time in arranging public contacts for the faculty. Through the organization of a speakers' bureau, members of the teaching staff may be assigned to give talks before women's clubs and business and professional groups. In this way the junior college can develop at practically no expense a valuable extension program of adult education. By stepping out of the classroom, by entering into the social life of the community, by speaking to adult audiences on informational topics and matters of current interest, the junior college instructor can win public esteem for his institution and thus help it to become a strong and wholesome influence in public affairs. Nor should these social appointments be given only to instructors who have marked abilities as public speakers; any faculty member who can do something well publicly is an asset. Domestic science teachers may give profitable demonstrations in home economics; music teachers may arrange instrumental and vocal concerts; physical education instructors may sponsor various types of recreational activities. The faculty of the average junior college is rich in such possibilities for valuable public work. The public relations counselor should know how to invest this wealth.

Doubtlessly he would encounter the initial difficulty of obtaining whole-hearted co-operation. The

<sup>5</sup> Edward L. Bernays, *Crystallizing Public Opinion* (New York, Horace Liveright, 1929), p. 14.



frequent complaint of school administrators is that the instructional staff is reluctant to assume extracurricular duties. But the personal recognition accruing from public contacts should prove a strong inducement to faculty cooperation in this enterprise. Moreover, it is improbable that any one instructor would be called upon to appear publicly more than once or twice during the school year. For such services the instructor should be rewarded, if not materially, then certainly by proper press notices before and after his engagement, thus assuring a good attendance for the event. In addition the commendation of school authorities should at all times be forthcoming. The opportunity for self-expression and self-improvement through these public contacts should, in the ultimate, make for a better teaching staff with livelier interests and broader points of view.

#### ADVISING STUDENT PUBLICATIONS

In respect to the problems of its student publications the junior college is not unique. Practically every educational institution has, in varying degree, the perplexity of projecting a satisfactory policy which will govern the ethics of the school newspaper, the yearbook, the magazine, and other publications. The public relations counselor should be ready at all times to offer advice to faculty journalism advisers and student editors and to assist them in working out satisfactory editorial policies.

Just what may constitute a satisfactory policy for student publications will in the last analysis be determined in part by the educational policies of the institution it-

self. Local factors, chief among which are the activity patterns, or mores, of the community life, also affect powerfully the editorial policies of campus publications. Because the school population and the society outside the school are interlaced, and because both are forever undergoing change and revaluation, serious study must be given the prevailing social structure. Whatever mutations our social-economic order may shortly experience, the ancient folkways still form an imperative and dominating *status quo* which it is not wise violently to oppose.<sup>6</sup> Whenever the school publication departs from the harmonies and uniformities which bind the group together and govern its standards of conduct, such a departure proves invariably a disruptive influence. The problem, then, is to keep the scholastic publication in the middle of the road. In the present welter of controversy, specious political doctrines, cracker-barrel philosophizings, and demagogic appeals to intolerance and suspicion, the school must redouble its efforts to help youth find a pathway to truth. If we are to avoid serious fracture of our social organization, young men and women must be taught the destructive history of man's inhumanity to man; and having perused that record, they must next be given an opportunity to learn how to suspend judgment, how to seek corroborative evidence, how to test the validity of arguments, how, in short, to develop an intelligent skepticism. To reach this way of reason is, we know, a tedious

<sup>6</sup> Frederick Elmore Lumley, *Means of Social Control* (New York, The Century Company, 1925), p. 7.

journey for immature minds. But if they are to be given a responsibility as important as that of editing a scholastic publication, students must be taught the way, not left to find it altogether for themselves, for in the latter eventuality some of them would probably get lost, and with the natural restlessness and desire for change typical of youth foment an editorial tirade or a journalese exposé likely to produce serious disturbances both in the school and the community. How many times this situation has occurred, those in charge of student newspapers and yearbooks know only too well. The public relations counselor can help prevent such crises by interpreting to advisers and student editors the group standards of action, thought, and feeling.

More, however, than avoidance of fanaticism should be demanded of student publications in the junior college. It is equally important to teach respect for the canons of good taste. Existing practical models, we admit, are not, for the most part, exemplary. On every side student editors are exposed to the jingoism of the daily press, to its sensationalizings of crime and sex, to lurid magazines and vulgar periodicals. The saner aspects — and they are many — of the best journalism too often escape their attention. The reason for this, in all probability, is that students are not taught to choose their reading matter discriminatingly, to read critically. As part of the general program of public relations counseling in the junior college there should be inaugurated a course in the reading of current periodicals. By teaching students to examine the sources of information, to inquire into the

historical backgrounds of today's events, to recognize traditional means of social control, there should emerge a better integration of the school public and a better organization of the school as an institution.

#### SPECIAL PUBLICITY METHODS

Certain special publicity methods may be employed by the public relations counsel to create good will for the junior college, thereby enabling this unique institution to gain wider public acceptance. Although he may arrange public contacts for the faculty, although he may help student publications to become a strong unifying force within the school, although he may utilize the accepted avenues of public communication such as the radio and the daily press, he will also recognize the importance of special means of getting group attention.

First among the devices for enlisting interest is the exhibit, or visual evidence, of the work of the college. In long use by institutions everywhere, it has proved at once one of the simplest and most effective means of popularizing educational activity. The public relations counselor will therefore arrange in store windows about town displays of photographs and exhibitions of the work of junior college students; or perhaps these exhibits may be placed in the campus buildings and special visiting days<sup>7</sup> scheduled on which parents and former students may be invited to inspect some junior college department or participate in some school activity.

But it is in the field of special

<sup>7</sup> Glenn C. Quiett and Ralph D. Casey, *Principles of Publicity* (New York, D. Appleton & Company, 1926), p. 227.

publications that the junior college can evoke the widest public response. There is a splendid opportunity for the junior college to lead in certain services which may encourage the development of useful leisure among its adult patrons. The problem of increased leisure time has been recognized as one of the vital issues of the day. The success of the FERA adult education extension classes throughout the country during the past year attests to the public's desire for profitable leisure. By issuing inexpensive pamphlets and chapbooks designed to offer instruction and advice in the pursuit of numerous avocational interests, the junior college would be performing a valuable public service. The use for this purpose of a limited apportionment of the annual school budget would constitute no dissipation of public funds likely to arouse adverse criticism. On the contrary, such an expenditure would be entirely justifiable from a strictly educational standpoint, for it would make possible the increased educational function of the institution.

Pamphlets might be prepared by either faculty or outsiders under the supervision of the public relations counsel. These booklets (the majority of them probably would need to be only a few pages in length) could offer, for example, an annotated bibliography of one hundred best books available in the public library; suggestions, together with a simple cost-accounting form, for the budgeting of household expenses; a brief manual of home gardening; a primer of animal husbandry and training for pet owners or those wishing to raise chickens, rabbits, or other small domesticated

flesh food for personal consumption. There might also be prepared various handbooks which would educate the consumer to economical and safe purchasing; fortnightly bulletins which would digest and interpret current affairs. The possibilities in this field of special publications are, in fact, unlimited. They would serve additionally as a spur to faculty achievement in various realms of popular knowledge, and they would prove as useful to students as to the adult population. In sponsoring such publications the junior college would be enhancing its reputation as an institution peculiarly equipped to serve the needs of popular education.

#### SERVING THE COMMON GOOD

It is, as one writer has said, "in the creation of a public conscience that the counsel on public relations is destined . . . to fulfill his highest usefulness to the society in which he lives."<sup>8</sup> Because he is "a specialist in the creation of good will"<sup>9</sup> he must espouse ideals of honesty and fair play in human relationships. To this end he attempts to give the public a correct and sincere interpretation of facts, an interpretation embodying accurate observation and sound reasoning.<sup>10</sup> He avoids propaganda, because he knows that "if a man or an institution tries to put something over on . . . the public, we are going to get on to him very quickly."<sup>11</sup> He practices, therefore, "a new and useful and legitimate profession"<sup>12</sup> the basis of which, if reduced to its simplest definition, is advertising.

<sup>8</sup> Edward L. Bernays, *op. cit.*, p. 218.

<sup>9</sup> W. Brooke Graves, *op. cit.*, p. 576.

<sup>10</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 593.

<sup>11</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 584.

<sup>12</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 576.

If the junior college has the foresight to create the position of public relations counselor, it must also make certain that the person who occupies that office lives up to a high standard of professional ethics in his work. While he may owe his institution "conscientious, effective service,"<sup>13</sup> he never "puts his duty to the group he represents above his duty to his own standards of integrity—to the larger society in which he lives and works."<sup>14</sup> He is primarily a public servant. He does not engage in questionable practices of press agency; his job is not that of obtaining a quantity of "free publicity" for the school. He must enjoy the confidence of all social groups. The newspaper editor, for example, as well as the teacher, the parent, and the business man, must know him as a truthful and honest purveyor of reliable information pertaining to the educational life of the community. He works for no one individual, although he recognizes the authority of his immediate superiors in the school system. He is not, to be exact, the personal publicity representative of the administration nor the advance agent of the board of trustees. In fine, the value of his work "lies in the fact that he brings to the public facts and ideas of social utility which would not so readily gain acceptance otherwise."<sup>15</sup> Because the future of civilization will be determined by the future of public opinion,<sup>16</sup> the counsel on public relations can play an important rôle in the struggle for continued social enlightenment.

<sup>13</sup> Edward L. Bernays, *op. cit.*, p. 216.

<sup>14</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 216.

<sup>15</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 216.

<sup>16</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 217.

#### HONORS AND HONOR SOCIETIES

A study was recently made at Stanford University of the honors and honor societies mentioned in the different available junior college catalogues. A total of 423 catalogues were examined, of which 74 mentioned having an honor scholarship society. In 59, honors and awards for high scholarship were mentioned but nothing was said about an honor society. Twenty-three institutions mentioning scholarship societies stated that they belonged to Phi Theta Kappa. No Catholic junior college catalogues mentioned an honor scholarship society although practically every one of them gave honor awards for high scholarship. Few of the denominational junior colleges listed had an honor scholarship society although practically every one gave some recognition to high scholarship. The public junior colleges mentioned honor scholarship societies more frequently than the private institutions.

#### TECHNICAL INSTITUTES

At the fortieth annual meeting of the Society for the Promotion of Engineering Education, the Committee on Technical Institutes (R. H. Spahr, chairman) recommended that

since the terminal courses of many junior colleges, in spirit at least, fall within the area of technical institute education, the chairman of the Society's Committee on Junior Colleges be named as one of the two additional members of the Committee on Technical Institutes, thus making for better co-ordination.

This recommendation was adopted by the Society.



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## State Junior Colleges of Utah

JOHN T. WAHLQUIST\*

The public junior colleges of Utah have a peculiar origin. With the exception of the Branch Agricultural College at Cedar City, they were formerly operated by the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter Day Saints (Mormons). Each institution had its beginnings as one of the several Church academies. The majority of the academies served as forerunners of the public high schools. When a given community indicated sufficient interest and strength to support a high school, the Church-school property was presented as a gift. Three academies in Utah, one in Idaho, and one in Arizona were converted into Church junior colleges. When the interest in public junior colleges was aroused, these were, in turn, presented to the public. The Utah institutions of this type are three in number: Snow College at Ephraim, Weber College at Ogden, and Dixie College at St. George.

The presentation of these gifts started Utah on a unique venture in the support and control of junior colleges. Ephraim is distinctly a Mormon community. The inhabitants may be said to have had an interest in the Church-school prop-

erty. When they gave title to this property to the state of Utah, it was quite natural that they expected the commonwealth to support the junior college. Although the Ogden inhabitants are approximately half non-Mormon, the local business interests were more than willing to see the burden of full support for the public junior college placed upon the taxpayers of the state. At any rate, they rationalized, the state university at Salt Lake City is maintained by the taxes from all the state. When St. George presented the Dixie College property, it was with the expectation of state support for the public junior college. As a consequence, Utah operates three public junior colleges in plants which represent gifts to the state.

The law regarding Snow College reads as follows:

There shall be a state school at Ephraim City to be known as Snow College, a junior college. The course of study therein shall be limited to the first two years of college work, and it shall be opened for registration of students for the school year beginning July 1, 1932, upon condition that the Board of Education of Snow College provides a suitable campus, buildings, and equipment for the conduct of such a school without cost to the state. Said school shall, however, thereafter be maintained by the state.<sup>1</sup>

The Weber College legislation is identical except for the beginning date which is one year later, July 1, 1933.<sup>2</sup> In the hurry of the 1933

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<sup>1</sup> *Revised Statutes*, 1933, 75.6.1.

<sup>2</sup> *Ibid.*, 75.6.2.

legislature, the Church surrendered title to the Dixie College property without securing definite provision for state support. The law reads: "There is hereby established a state junior college at St. George city."<sup>3</sup> Inasmuch as the legislature failed to provide funds for this school, the Attorney-General was asked to rule as to legality. In substance, under date of April 17, 1933, he ruled: "The Dixie Junior College is entitled to the same recognition as Weber and Snow junior colleges, with the exception that no state appropriation of funds has been made."

#### THE QUESTION OF SUPPORT

The state of Utah has not supported these institutions according to the standards maintained during the Church administration. During 1930-31 and 1931-32, Snow College received from the Church \$33,355 and \$33,668, respectively. The first year of state support the legislature granted \$35,191. The next year, when two other public junior colleges were recognized, the appropriation was only \$15,250. Meanwhile, total income, including tuitions and fees, for the three years 1931-32, 1932-33, and 1933-34 was \$45,061, \$45,304, and \$30,328, respectively.

Weber College is in an even worse plight. The average of the Church grants for the three years preceding July 1, 1933, was \$45,249. For the school year 1933-34 the state legislature budgeted \$33,395. The three-year average for student tuition and fees was \$20,986. The figure for 1933-34 is \$36,863, although some of this amount represents

gymnasium fees paid by business men. (A part of the Weber plant was a \$500,000 gymnasium, later described by the college president as a "white elephant.") These fees bring the 1933-34 budget to \$70,837 as compared with a three-year average of \$70,741. Nevertheless, the institution is operated on "a shoe string." The annual expenditure per student under the Church administration was approximately \$140 as compared with \$250 at Snow College and \$190 at Dixie College.

Dixie College is a state institution without state support. In recognition of this fact, the Church made a gift last year, 1933-34, of \$7,300 as compared with grants the previous three years of \$32,420, \$27,595, and \$25,987. Meanwhile, the Washington County School Board (the county in which Dixie is located) has increased its appropriation to the College. During the Church administration it gave \$6,000 per year for the instruction of approximately 350 high-school students. Last year, the appropriation of the school district, gifts from clubs and business men, etc., totaled \$22,000. Consequently, the budget was \$37,269.81, as compared with \$40,561.92 for the previous year. No doubt, the community would be willing to continue local support to a state college.

The Branch Agricultural College has felt the presence of the sister institutions. The state appropriation for 1931-32, when it was the only state junior college, was \$56,538; for 1932-33, when Snow College began operation, \$41,630; and, for 1933-34, when Snow and Weber colleges were operating, \$25,000. Under the old mill-tax

<sup>3</sup> *Session Laws*, 1933, Section 1, Chapter 50.

levy of 1930-31 this institution received \$33,549. Meanwhile, total income dropped from \$77,573 for 1932-33 to \$62,983 for 1933-34.

Any system which places the entire cost of the burden of maintenance upon the state general fund invites "pork-barrel" raids upon the legislature. There is evidence of movements in this direction in several quarters. Fortunately, the present junior colleges are well distributed over the state. Weber College is in the northern section, Snow College is in the central section, and the Branch Agricultural College and Dixie College are in the southern section. There has been considerable discussion of the desirability of maintaining both of these southern institutions. A ride from Cedar City to St. George, however, convinces one that the inhabitants live in different geographical worlds. Utah's Dixie is a semi-tropical area in the extreme southwestern corner of the state. Inasmuch as the school plants are already in existence, there is every reason to make the effort to operate them. If this requires some local financial support, as it probably should, the Dixie community has demonstrated its desire and ability to undertake the burden. The legislature of 1935 should declare a moratorium on junior colleges. At any rate, all "pork-barrel" raids should be thwarted.

#### ENROLLMENTS

Except in the case of Dixie College, the transition from Church to state institutions has not been accompanied by increased enrollments. In Table I the figures for the institution while under state control appear in italics.

TABLE I  
ENROLLMENT OF REGULAR STUDENTS  
IN THE PUBLIC JUNIOR COLLEGES  
OF UTAH

Date	Branch Agricultural College	Snow	Weber	Dixie
1928-29	.... 104	118	382	74
1929-30	.... 113	227	312	77
1930-31	.... 139	220	385	82
1931-32	.... 188	217	699	86
1932-33	.... 240	219	805	123
1933-34	.... 255	204	626	179

There is considerable evidence of elaborate campaigns for students. This condition will no doubt exist as long as the institutions compete for grants from the general state fund. A public junior college, however, tends primarily to serve the region immediately surrounding the city or town of its location. Although there has been an increase in the counties represented in the Branch Agricultural College from ten to seventeen, 133 of the 255 students are from Iron County. Snow College has consistently attracted students from a dozen counties, but two-thirds of them come from San Pete County. Weber attracts two-thirds of its students from Weber County. Bus lines, operated by the College, bring 128 students from two adjacent counties. Dixie as a state institution is attracting more students from a greater area. Eight counties are represented as compared with four counties four years ago, but 128 of the 179 college students come from Washington County. There are about a dozen students from Nevada and usually three or four from Arizona. Campaigns to the contrary, public junior colleges seem to be largely local institutions.

## TUITION AND FEES

Tuition charges and fees at the different colleges lack uniformity, as shown in Table II. This is in direct violation of the law which specifically states "the entrance and tuition fees in all junior colleges receiving support from the state must be equal and uniform."<sup>4</sup> The higher tuition fees for public junior colleges indicate that, in effect, there is local support, but only the parents of those students who attend carry this burden. Tuition fees could be reduced if the local district contributed to the support of the institution. This arrangement would, unquestionably, increase the college enrollments.

TABLE II

ANNUAL FEES AND TUITION CHARGES AT  
PUBLIC JUNIOR COLLEGES OF UTAH

	Branch Agricul- tural College	Snow	Weber	Dixie
Registration				
Utah students	\$10.00	\$10.00	\$10.00	\$10.00
Students from other states	35.00	10.00	10.00	10.00
Tuition .....	27.00	52.00	47.00	45.00
Student body...	7.50	8.00	14.00	5.00
Gymnasium ...	3.00	0	17.50*	0

\* For business men.

## THE PLIGHT OF THE FACULTY

The faculty members suffered severely in the transition from Church to state schools. Proof of this assertion is found in a comparison of salaries at the Branch Agricultural College and the three new institutions. The median salary in 1933-34 at the Branch Agricul-

tural College was \$1,600, at Snow and Weber \$1,200, and at Dixie \$1,300. Not a single instructor at Snow or Weber colleges received more than the median salary at the Branch Agricultural College. In fact, only one instructor at Snow College received \$1,600, out of a faculty of sixteen members, and only eight were paid this sum at Weber in a full-time faculty of twenty-five members.

The meagerness of the salaries in the public junior colleges of Utah is almost beyond belief. At Snow there is one instructor at \$1,600, four at \$1,500, one at \$1,450, one at \$1,320, two at \$1,200, three between \$1,100 and \$1,200, and four between \$1,000 and \$1,100. At Weber College there are nine full-time instructors receiving \$1,200, three at \$1,000, and three at lesser amounts. Dixie has six full-time instructors between \$1,000 and the median of \$1,300. The instructors are all properly qualified, holding certificates issued by the State Board of Education.

There are two explanations for this condition: (1) the depression, which has brought salaries down everywhere; and (2) the inability of the state of Utah to assume the burden of paying outright the full salaries of some eighty-five individuals. It would appear that the state cannot carry the burden without some local support.

## PROBLEMS OF ADMINISTRATION

The legislative enactments carry the following provision:

The state board of education shall have the management and control of said schools, prescribe the courses of study, employ instructors and pre-

<sup>4</sup> *Session Laws, 1933, Section 2, Chapter 49.*



scribe their qualifications, appoint a president for each of said schools and prescribe entrance requirements of students to the institutions.<sup>5</sup>

The State Board of Education consists of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, the President of the University of Utah, the President of the Utah State Agricultural College, and six other persons appointed by the Governor by and with the consent of the Senate as their terms expire, two each biennium, for six-year terms. The State Superintendent is the chairman of this body. He is elected by popular vote for a four-year term of office.

The state junior colleges of Utah are placed logically under the State Board of Education. The main source of funds is the state general fund. There are no local sources of funds except the tuitions and fees which are regulated by this state body.

There are advantages and disadvantages to the Utah set-up. As long as public junior colleges are supported in full by state funds the set-up meets with general approval. The interlocking membership, with representatives from the university and state college, make of the State Board a natural body for planning and co-ordination. It is very obvious, however, that this one board cannot give detailed attention to the administration of four distinct institutions. Furthermore, the residents in the various districts where the schools are located have nothing to say about their administration. Probably they should not, unless they give some financial support to them. There is ample evidence that

the separate institutions need this local solicitation and aid, which is denied to them under the present arrangement except extra-legally as at Dixie College.

Under present conditions, the junior colleges are in open competition with the institutions of higher learning. There exists a tendency to regard them as universities or colleges. There is a constant danger that the junior colleges of Utah will fail to see their mission. In fact, the State Board is not likely to see the terminal functions of these institutions in terms of the different localities.

Under the present system, politics is inevitable. The State Superintendent is elected by popular vote. He will be the natural target for the agitators of "pork-barrel" raids on the state general fund. Inasmuch as faculty appointments at the various institutions are largely in his hands, his actions will be watched carefully by the leaders of his political party. He may actually build his political machine in the personnel of the junior colleges. Of course, the solution to this might be the removal of this office from politics. Even then we would still be faced with the biennial fight for funds.

#### THE QUESTION OF STATE AID

State aid to public junior colleges may take one of several forms. Utah, theoretically, has 100 per cent state support, but student tuitions and fees are an important source of revenue in each instance: Approximately \$10,000 at Snow and Dixie, \$15,000 at the Branch Agricultural College, and \$25,000 at Weber. These amounts come from the immediate locality, although only those who have the money can

<sup>5</sup> *Revised Statutes*, 1933, 76.6.3.

enter the schools. In theory, full state support is best. The unit is large and inequalities in districts do not exist. Nevertheless, in spite of law, it has been impossible to keep tuition and entrance fees the same in all localities. Under the stress for revenue, the schools tend to charge "what the traffic will bear."

Numerous proposals have been made regarding state aid. Dr. Zook recommended 75 per cent in the Massachusetts survey; Professor Proctor advocates 50 per cent; California under the law of 1921 aimed to give 40 per cent state aid, i.e., \$100 per student in average daily attendance on the assumption that the total cost was approximately \$250; Professor Eby of Texas recommends one-third state aid, one-third local support, and one-third tuition; and there have been legal decisions against state aid in North Carolina and Indiana, and refusals since 1925 in Kansas, Colorado, Nebraska, and other states.

The theoretical 100 per cent state aid in Utah actually produced approximately \$100 per student at the Branch Agricultural College, \$75 at Snow College, \$60 at Weber College, and \$00 at Dixie College. Except for personal entrance fees and tuitions, these figures practically represent the incomes of these schools. The Branch Agricultural College realizes some money on sales and handles high-school students from the local district; Snow College rents a portion of the building to the local school district; Weber College charges a \$17.50 gymnasium fee for business men, and Dixie College handles local high-school students and solicits local contributions. Actually the state of Utah is furnishing in the four institutions 40

per cent, 30 per cent, 24 per cent, and 0 per cent, of what it takes adequately to care for a junior college student, on the basis of \$250 per year.

A shift from fully supported state junior colleges to state-aid institutions would force the formation of junior college districts. For the time being, it probably would be wise to form districts in terms of the present institutions. Inasmuch as it would be unfair to tax the entire state to support freshmen and sophomores at the state institutions of higher learning, these two institutions should also be regarded as centers of districts, but the entire state should continue to support the professional schools and graduate programs at the university and the college. This adjustment would reduce general state taxes over the entire state. The district junior college taxes would take up the slack. In a district plan each institution would have its board of education under the general supervision of the State Board of Education.

State aid should probably take the form of a grant to cover the overhead expenses at each institution and a stated sum per student in average daily attendance. For practical purposes the overhead may be considered to be identical in the various schools. Under the law of 1921, California gives \$2,000 to each district junior college and \$100 for each student in average daily attendance. At the present time the state grants are approximately half the expenditures at the different institutions of Utah. Appropriations for each year of the present biennium and the total expenditures for 1933-34 follow:

Snow College \$15,250 and \$30,238; Weber College \$36,500 and \$70,837; and Branch Agricultural College \$25,000 and \$62,983. The state appropriations per student amount to \$74 at Snow College, \$58 at Weber College, and \$98 at the Branch Agricultural College. Meanwhile, Dixie College receives no money. Such actions are likely to accompany this method as long as it is retained.

#### SERVICES RENDERED

Serious consideration has not been given to the program of studies offered by the public junior colleges of Utah. The details of administering the new colleges, especially the financial problems, have taken the time which should be given by the State Board of Education to these higher functions. This is another argument for district junior colleges. If the local institutions had individual boards, more immediate consideration could be given to their terminal functions. The localization of special functions in certain colleges would come within the jurisdiction of the State Board of Education, acting as a commission on co-ordination.

Each higher institution in the state is training teachers, including all public and private junior colleges. The junior college courses are two years in length, although the state requirement by 1936 will be three years of professional training. No junior college has an adequate training school with competent critic teachers. The majority of the students do their practice teaching in local schools under poorly paid teachers who lack professional training and experience. The employment of these two-year

graduates, at a time when the three higher institutions are requiring three and four years for the completion of their professional courses, results in the application of Gresham's law, i.e., the poor teachers tend to drive out the good. There is an economic loss when the junior colleges, with inadequate facilities, compete with the professional schools at the universities and colleges. The requirements of the American Association of Teachers Colleges include the Master's degree for 85 per cent of the critic teachers. The junior college faculties, disregarding the affiliated training schools, barely meet this standard. Undoubtedly, the junior colleges should discontinue terminal courses in education, although they should continue to offer the introductory courses in education and psychology.

#### CONCLUSIONS

Few citizens of Utah would care to abandon the public junior colleges. They are rendering genuine service, especially in these days of economic depression. Last year a total of 1,264 individuals were kept profitably employed as students at these centers of cultural and vocational training. The entire cost to the state of Utah was only \$76,650. Sums greater than this have been expended for the support of a single CCC camp. More than this amount is expended in support of the state armories.

The fact that the state was unable to expend more money definitely crippled the junior colleges. The loyalty of the underpaid faculties is a source of considerable pride to the profession. However, how many citizens in the respective localities

sense the situation? Is it possible that the public junior colleges are too far from the inhabitants of the districts served? If the citizens do recognize conditions, will they raid the next legislature, taking money from the financially weak college and university?

If communities can evade the bill, there is every reason to lobby for additional state junior colleges. A junior college does increase real-estate values; it brings an additional payroll into the community; it results in the purchase of many supplies from local merchants; it keeps money at home and in circulation; and it furnishes an outlet for much community pride. There is evidence that the state may be over-ridden with public junior colleges, unless something is done to modify the present system of state support. Legislative blocs can be formed to support the establishment of state junior colleges in all quarters of the state as long as the public pays the bill. When the bill is passed, in part, to the owners of real estate, merchants, and townspeople, it may tend to curb their "boom spirit." Inasmuch as there are few centers not served by some institution of learning, this would prove a god-send to the present junior colleges, even though they are placed under some system of state aid.

In the writer's opinion two steps are imperative: (1) legislation dividing the state into junior college districts, placing part of the burden of support upon these districts; and (2) legislation containing definite criteria as safeguards against the establishment of additional public junior colleges in centers not able to carry their share of the costs of maintenance.

#### UNIVERSITY JUNIOR COLLEGE

University Junior College of the University of Southern California began its second year, September 18. Work in the junior college division began with the fall term of 1933. A special two-year curriculum is provided for those students who have a limited number of years to give to college work; those who wish and need more than the usual amount of guidance in the first two years of college work; those who do not meet satisfactorily the entrance requirements of the college divisions of the University of Southern California; and those who transfer from other collegiate institutions, but do not meet the requirements of the college of the university to which they apply.

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#### PORTLAND JUNIOR COLLEGE

The Bulletin of the Portland (Oregon) Junior College, recently received, states that it was established in 1931, as a co-educational institution, after a survey of the educational needs of the city. It has back of it the resources of the Young Men's Christian Association of Portland. Edward L. Clark is dean. Curricula offered include business administration, secretarial training, and pre-engineering courses.

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#### PHI THETA KAPPA SECRETARY

Mrs. Doris Pottz, 106 North Broadway, Walters, Oklahoma, has been elected national secretary of Phi Theta Kappa, national junior college honor society. Mrs. Pottz takes the place of Miss Ruth Barnard, of Lincoln, Nebraska, who has recently resigned.



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## Conformity in the Teaching of English

ZAIDEE E. GREEN\*

The fetish of conformity in the teaching of English is making itself a curse today. Obviously, mathematics, history, chemistry, and Latin afford small opportunity for originality of presentation. The junior colleges do well to inquire how these subjects are taught in the universities, and usually they exhibit wisdom in adopting the procedure of the more advanced institutions. Not infrequently can the practices of the university classrooms be adapted to the classrooms of even the high school or the junior high school. Often, therefore, no real harm is done when the new Master of Arts converts into a seminar her seventh-grade history class. Nor can we be sure that the high schools are absolutely wrong in making English IV an abridgement of the university sophomore Survey of English Literature, although those students who go immediately into business soon find that the names of Langland and Yeats and Collins and Wyclif are a jumbled mass which they can well afford to discard from their minds, whereas a wider acquaintance with the great characters of fiction would continue to delight and instruct them to the end of their days. But we are not interested in this particular problem at the moment. The work of the high schools throughout the

country must, of course, be more or less standardized.

### THE PROBLEM STATED

It is the problem of the teaching of English in the junior college which concerns us here. Curiously enough, few people have given it real thought. Almost daily, books on the teaching of college English slide from the press. No one, we believe, ever taught a section of freshman English in a college or university who did not yearn to write a textbook on the subject, and many of those who have yearned have written. With the air of the genuine innovator, some have placed the emphasis upon grammar, relegating rhetoric, with its frills, to an appendix; others have given rhetoric the first place and squeezed grammar into the humiliating appendix. It would, of course, be a real feat to work out an arrangement of the subject-matter of freshman English which would be, or would appear to be, at all new. And we wonder that hundreds are sanguine enough to attempt to do so. So far as we can see, there is no need to aspire to originality in the conduct of the freshman English course in a college or university. It is the course in which a student is given his tools and taught how to use them. There may be some advantage in teaching the principles of basic construction before one deals in ornamentation, but the arrangement is not vital. The only suggestion which can

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wisely be offered is that the instructor should seek to arouse in his class at an early date an interest sufficient to endure throughout the vexatious days of instruction in the preparation of bibliographies and footnoting.

So far as those students are concerned who plan to continue their work in English beyond the junior college, we have no suggestion to offer. They, unquestionably, should be put through the paces of the standard course in freshman English. The Century or the Woolley handbook should be their Bible, and they should do a good deal more than dip into some of the newer texts designed to lead them out of the woods. The précis, the research theme, the autobiography, the "Why I Came to College" theme, all have, if the instructor is fond of them, a legitimate place in the course, and, indeed, the instructor should feel free to imitate as much as he or she desires, to deal in "methods," to utilize all of the intelligence tests which the Middle West can produce. Similarly, the sophomore course in English for those who plan to take a degree should in the junior college be like that (even mirror that) of the four-year college.

#### TERMINAL ENGLISH COURSES

Certainly English courses of a different nature, however, should be provided for those in the junior college who do not plan to take more than two years of academic work; and these courses should prove the delight of the instructor and students alike. What does it matter if such students have never heard of Wulfstan or Aelfric? What does it matter if they forget

to italicize *ibid*? But it matters a good deal if they are inadequately equipped to perform the duties which do come their way, if they are unable to employ their talents for their own gratification and distinction.

Unquestionably, there can be little imitation in the preparation of such a course. An instructor cannot imitate even himself or herself—the course must be rearranged each year to suit the needs of the personnel of the class. So far as the work of the first year is concerned, it would seem, however, that there should be much more emphasis upon letter writing than there can possibly be in the standard freshman English course. Many types of business letters and all types of social letters should be considered in detail. Instruction should be given in the preparation of reports (as for clubs of various sorts), and much attention should be given to the writing of criticisms of plays and novels. Nor should all of the criticisms be written. There should be much extemporaneous discussion in class of plays, motion pictures, lectures, sermons, and novels. But the chief object of this course should be, it seems to us, to assist the student in his attempts at creative writing. Technical instruction in versification, in plot construction, in the manipulation of dialogue, and the like, should be provided throughout the year. The student should write a number of essays and plays and short stories, and many examples of each type should be studied and analyzed by the class as a group. Not by any means should all of the models thus studied represent modern masterpieces. Many of them should not be

modern (the poems of Christina Rossetti are as delightful as those of Amy Lowell; the plays of Shakespeare are still holding up pretty well against O'Neill's). And not all of the models should even be masterpieces, for an obvious reason.

It will be seen, thus, that in this special section the students attempt practically all types of prose and poetic composition (of a creative nature) in the course of one year. There is no such thing as the writing of a "theme," no such thing as the dissection of composition into exposition, argumentation, narration, and description, though each student is trained to recognize the various types as he meets them in their proper relationship to the other types. No oftener, we feel, will he meet any one of them alone in literature than he will meet headless riders on the highway. As the course progresses, the student is permitted to meet as he will his quota of composition for the week, creating whatever type appeals to him most. We have even permitted a student of unusual talent to begin a novel and to submit chapters of it from time to time in lieu of other work in composition.

#### SOPHOMORE COURSE SUGGESTED

And just as the work in composition should be adapted to fit the needs and interests of a particular group in the junior college, we feel that the second year's course in literature should be rearranged for those who do not plan to seek a college degree. It is convenient to argue, "Oh, why not give them the regular survey course? They may change their minds and decide at some future date to seek a degree." But we must surely realize that

very few of them do change their minds, and that those who do not pursue their work in English beyond the junior college scarcely profit largely by what they learn in the sophomore survey course. They simply memorize a few more names and titles and dates, get a very hazy idea of literary movements, and an exceedingly vague notion of what hundreds of masterpieces are about. This is all very well for the student who will go on. He will fill in the details later, but for the student whose formal education will end with the junior college this procedure is rather absurd. He has had one dose of this sort of thing in the fourth year of high school. It is scarcely salutary to give him another. About three weeks' time should be quite enough for a review of the great literary periods and of the names and titles which fall within them. Manifestly, some of this sort of thing is necessary if we would be sure that Clough is not tied to the Middle Ages in the student's mind, that Milton's poetry can be distinguished from Skelton's. But this length of time should be sufficient for a review, especially if the instructor has prepared a chart for distribution which shows the names of authors, their dates, and their chief works in some clear arrangement.

With such a review completed, the instructor is free to teach what he or she will. Certainly, it would seem, nine weeks should be devoted to the drama, nine to poetry, and nine to the novel. The period remaining may be distributed equally among these three types, may be reserved for additional work in any one type, or may be devoted to miscellaneous prose — essays, biogra-

phies, and so on. But the important thing is to work intensively on each particular type before turning to the next type. The study of the drama, for example, constitutes thus a distinct (though brief) course in the drama. There is no jumping from Marlowe's plays to his narrative poetry, as in the regular sophomore survey course. In a period of nine weeks, from nine to twelve plays can be quite carefully studied. The emphasis can, of course, be placed wherever it is desired, but we feel that four Elizabethan plays should be read (two of them Shakespearean), one or two Restoration plays, one or two eighteenth-century plays, two nineteenth, and two twentieth. In the field of poetry we believe that the emphasis, with a group like this, should be placed upon the early nineteenth-century poets, and in the field of the novel that the emphasis should be placed upon the late nineteenth-century novel and upon the modern novel.

In the teaching of poetry the instructor should make a more extensive use of pictures (of authors, cities, shrines) than it is possible to make in the rush of the regular sophomore course. Many of the students in the eastern part of the country will visit Europe if they have not already done so. Venice should in time suggest to them more names in the field of literature than Byron and Ruskin; Florence should suggest more than Browning. An hour in Westminster Abbey should make a more poignant impression upon a student of such a course than upon one who has galloped through the standard course in sophomore literature and gone no farther.

If these two special courses are wisely planned and enthusiastically conducted, they should prove invaluable, a source of genuine education, a stimulus to literary activity, rather than an aid to writing at some future time a mechanically accurate dissertation, to passing at some remote date a comprehensive examination in the field of English literature, neither of which things these special students plan to do.

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#### SAN BERNARDINO STANDARD

At its June meeting the Board of Education of the San Bernardino Valley Junior College (California) adopted the following resolution, setting a higher standard for the appointment of future faculty members:

WHEREAS, The quality of the work of any educational institution is determined ultimately by the character of its professional staff, and

WHEREAS, There is an increasing need for the diversification of offerings to meet adequately the varied interests of junior college students;

*Be it resolved*, That subsequent to July 1, 1934, the Board of Trustees of the San Bernardino Valley Union Junior College consider for appointment to the professional staff only such candidate who has a Master's degree in the field in which he expects to teach.

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#### BACK NUMBERS WANTED

The publishers of the *Junior College Journal* will pay fifty cents apiece for a limited number of copies of the May 1934 issue of the *Journal*. Anyone having copies of this issue available please notify Stanford University Press, Stanford University, California.



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# The Improvement of College Teaching\*

## Problems of Supervision at the College Level

CHARLES L. HARLAN† AND  
WALTER CROSBY EELLS‡

### INTRODUCTION

Effective instruction is certainly one of the functions of the college in educating the students who are enrolled. It is one of the duties of the college administrator to secure well-trained and well-qualified men and women for his faculty. Whether they are trained and qualified for teaching or for conducting research, or for both, should be of some concern to the college administrator. It is also of concern to him whether the members of his faculty are performing these functions effectively. How is he to know this? If he finds ineffective teaching, what is he to do about it? It is also one of his duties as an administrator to devise ways and means of improving the quality of teaching done in his institution. All of these statements and questions imply some administrative measures for securing a high quality of instruction.

Many members of college faculties seem to have assumed that the administration may inspect and regulate the curricula, the marking system, the equipment, salaries, and almost everything else about

the college except the way they conduct their classes. What goes on in their classrooms they regard as more or less sacred from the administrative hand. Yet their reputation as a faculty and that of the institution in which they teach rests, in part at least, upon the quality and effectiveness of the teaching done there.

Training in principles and methods of teaching is regarded as essential to kindergarten, elementary school, and high-school teaching, but it seems to be assumed that for college or university teachers a thorough knowledge and understanding of subject-matter is sufficient to secure effective teaching. Is the supervision of the instruction in colleges any less necessary than it is in schools of lower grade? The techniques for achieving it may vary in schools of different levels, but the necessity for it exists. Sometimes, in fact, one is tempted to believe that it is even greater at the college level than in the elementary school.

The various aspects of this problem are of sufficient importance to challenge the interest and effort of both the administrative staff and the teaching staff in studying the possibilities of its solution. There should, at least, be a willingness to study together the instruction with a view to its improvement.

\* For introductory note, explanatory of this series of articles, see *Junior College Journal* (October 1934), V, 26-27.

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‡ Professor of Education, Stanford University, California.

## QUOTATIONS

It is often claimed that a junior college teacher, being an expert in his or her subject, needs no supervision. The best way to prove that this is a false notion is to visit a few classes. (SEARS, *Sacramento School Survey*, p. 431.)

Referring to the requirement of some professional training for the instructional staff, the late President Eliot of Harvard said:

Indeed, looking back over the last twenty years, I am not certain that such a requirement has any relationship whatever to high-grade instructional service. (Quoted by Klein.)

The reason why teachers do not want supervision are several. They have never had supervision, but have had inspection and administration that was labeled as supervision, and did not like it. Then, there are still in our profession a few of the tradition-bound and self-satisfied who do not wish to be disturbed by genuine study of their work. Then, because we have not had supervision before, some teachers get the impression that supervision would be a reflection on their work and on the dignity of their positions. (SEARS, *Modesto Junior College Survey*, p. 178.)

The course is planned by the Graduate Council as a three-quarter course. It will deal, first, with the scientific method, second, historical and social background, and third, with such questions as logical versus psychological organization, the meaning of a liberal education, and the like. The third quarter will be conducted by the College of Education and the course will be required of all graduate students who plan to teach in college. (B. H. BODE, Ohio State University, quoted by Klein.)

Substantial improvement in the personal fitness and teaching ability of

college teachers may be brought about by having students express an opinion of their teachers in a systematic and orderly manner. This conclusion seems to be warranted by an extensive investigation carried on at Iowa State College since the fall of 1928. (STARRAK.)

In a college a teacher will very often know far more about his subject than will the supervisor. He may know far less, however, about the technique of instruction, about handling students, and about the bearing of the subject upon college aims, and about the proper function of the subject in the various types of subject combinations. One need not have an exhaustive knowledge of a subject in order to be of assistance to the teacher of the subject. (SEARS, *Modesto Junior College Survey*, p. 174.)

Klein, after a study of seventy-four colleges and universities most of which he had visited and in which he had investigated administrative methods of directing and improving instruction, lists and discusses seventeen methods employed. (1) Requirement of teaching faculty that they have prior teaching experience; (2) professional education as a prerequisite for employment; (3) promoting of faculty members at beginning of year of leave for study, requiring that they study certain things; (4) provision of two types of courses, one for faculty already employed, and one for graduate students who expect to teach in college; (5) attendance of faculty on regular courses given by the School of Education; (6) series of lectures and forums conducted by outside men; (7) faculty forums, faculty seminars, discussion clubs; (8) professional and departmental faculty meetings; (9) special committee studies and reports; (10) class in-

spection; (11) systematic surveys of class work and instruction; (12) systematic inquiry among students and alumni as to the effectiveness of the instruction received by them; (13) investigation by administrator of professional reading done by the faculty; (14) visiting committees, one department to another; (15) enlisting faculty in the study of the content of courses and how they may be presented; (16) checking whether content and methods contribute to objectives set up for the institution; (17) administrative direction of faculty members to School of Education for help on problems of teaching.

#### QUESTIONS

1. Why do many faculty members hold that what they do and how they do it in their own classes is of no concern to anyone except themselves and their students?
2. What justification is there for the feeling that the supervising officer (dean, president, vice-president, etc.) does not know as much about how to teach as they themselves do?
3. Is the School or Department of Education the best qualified of all departments to give help on instructional problems? Why?
4. Is the administration justified in expecting that the teaching in the institution as a whole should contribute to the objectives set up by the institution?
5. What can be said for and against class visitation by directors of instruction, deans, etc.? Does supervision necessitate class visitation?
6. Are reports of students and alumni as to the quality and effectiveness of instruction to

be relied upon as valid measures of the worth of instruction?

7. What are the relative merits of compulsory measures and rewards for improvement in teaching?
8. What are the essential qualities of a good director or supervisor of college instruction?
9. Is there any basis for the assumption that if the teacher knows his subject well he can teach it well?
10. How may the president of a college or university know what quality of teaching his faculty members are doing?
11. Is it desirable for a dean or supervisor to wait for an invitation before visiting an instructor's classroom?
12. What is the difference between real supervision and inspection?
13. How may survey findings be made most helpful in improving instruction?

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#### NORTHWESTERN SCHOLARSHIPS

Ten full tuition scholarships to graduates of accredited junior colleges were offered for the year 1934-35 by Northwestern University's School of Commerce and Medill School of Journalism, Evanston, Illinois. Applicants were to be selected upon a basis of potential capacity to do work in business or journalism. Scholarship, character, competency, and health were also to be factors of selection.

#### LOS ANGELES ENROLLMENT

Enrollment figures for the first week of Los Angeles Junior College totaled 3,801 with indications that the total for the semester would exceed 4,000.



## "Ancient History"

### DETROIT JUNIOR COLLEGE\*

The present Wayne University, formerly the Colleges of the City of Detroit, is an outgrowth of the Detroit Junior College, which, in turn, was an upward extension of the work of the Central High School. As early as 1910 the extension upward of the city system of public instruction had been advocated,<sup>1</sup> but

\* R. H. Eckelberry, *History of the Municipal University in the United States* (United States Office of Education, Bulletin No. 2, Washington, D.C., 1932), pp. 139-41.

<sup>1</sup> A. B. Moehlman, *Public Education in Detroit* (Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Illinois, 1925), p. 186. In a personal letter Professor Moehlman states that, so far as he knows, there is no documentary evidence of this early advocacy, but he recalls that from time to time members of the Board of Education made speeches in favor of offering college work and sometimes mentioned a municipal university. Doctor Moehlman was a member of the staff of the Detroit schools from 1913 to 1925, serving successively as teacher, high-school principal, and director of reference and statistics.

It is interesting to note that J. F. Nichols, the first superintendent of schools for Detroit, in his first annual report (1856) strongly recommended the establishment of a "Free Academy or Central High School," which should offer to the most advanced pupils of the upper grades secondary instruction "and perhaps the first university year." The report is reprinted in Moehlman, *ibid.*, pp. 259-63. When, two years later, in compliance with this recommendation, "a city high school was established," some advocated the immediate expansion of this school into a junior college, but Mr. Duffield (city superintendent) felt that it should be developed into something similar to the Chicago high school, or "high-toned substantial academy, preparing both for college and for life," Moehlman, *ibid.*, p. 97.

outside of offering a certain amount of postgraduate work in the high schools, nothing was done until 1915. The story of the beginnings of the junior college can best be told in the words of David MacKenzie, who was principal of Central High School, and became the first dean of the college.

Like many other high schools, the Detroit Central High School had for many years been offering postgraduate work. In some cases these courses were in advance of the standard secondary school courses; in other cases they were merely the more advanced courses in the regular curriculum. For this additional work advanced credit was sometimes given our students on entering college; but, as there was no general agreement on this point, and as the practicability of doing advanced work grew apparent, we decided to organize a one-year junior college, and to offer such beginning collegiate courses as our existing instruction force seemed to justify.

The work of the junior college began in 1915 with an enrollment of 33 students; the teaching was done by the faculty of the high school without extra compensation. The University of Michigan gave formal recognition to this work, and stood sponsor for it before the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, which also recognized it.

The enrollment grew rapidly, indicating that the junior college was meeting a real need, for which ampler provision ought to be made. In view of this fact and of the rapid growth of the junior college in different parts of the country, Su-

perintendent Charles E. Chadsey recommended that the course be extended by the addition of a second year. In order that the legality of the project might be assured, legislative authorization was sought. In the words of Dean MacKenzie:

In order to forestall any attempts to hinder our development in 1917 we decided to seek legislative authorization for the establishment of a junior college. Opposition to the establishment of public high schools in Michigan had to be fought in the courts in the early days, and we feared that any attempt to organize a junior college would arouse similar opposition unless sanctioned by legislative enactment.

In compliance with the request of the Detroit authorities, the legislature in April 1917 passed an act authorizing the board of education in any school district having a population of more than 30,000 to provide a junior collegiate department embracing not more than the first two years of college work, and to issue diplomas to those successfully completing the course of study. Such junior collegiate departments were to be open only to graduates of standard four-year high schools. The Detroit Board of Education unanimously authorized the establishment of a two-year junior college, which was put in operation in September. The two-year college likewise proved immediately successful; by 1919-20 the enrollment had increased to 816, and by 1921-22 to 1,227.

#### CHRISTIAN COLLEGE TRIPS

Christian College (Missouri) announces a series of educational trips which will be made available to students and faculty during the

present year. The college administration is planning a number of local trips during the fall and winter months, an Eastern tour in the early spring, and a European voyage in the summer of 1935.

The European tour will be sponsored by the college for its faculty, students, and alumnae. The group will leave about June 20 and the itinerary will include England and the immediate continental Europe. Dr. J. C. Miller, dean of the faculty, and Mrs. Miller will accompany the group.

The Eastern trip to New York, Washington, and other points has become almost an annual event, as such a trip has been sponsored by the college since 1927. With one exception, the annual educational excursion taken each February has been, by a vote of students, an eight-day study of historical points of interest in the East. The trip next February will include a coastline voyage to Norfolk, Jamestown, and Williamsburg, Virginia, and a four-day visit in Washington.

The first local-type trip will be to Kansas City in October to visit the William Rockhill Nelson Art Museum. A trip to St. Louis is planned for November. There the students will visit Shaw's Botanical Gardens, the Lindbergh trophies, and other points of interest. Several excursions with limited groups will be made to the State Capitol in Jefferson City during the winter, and to Hannibal to visit the Mark Twain memorials. All of these travel events will be directed by Dr. Miller. They have been organized to resemble an extracurricular activity. Lectures and assembly talks will be arranged to precede each event.

# The Junior College World

## CONTRIBUTED SERVICES

In many junior colleges, particularly those under denominational auspices, the total budget does not give an adequate representation of the costs of services rendered, since personal services are in many cases contributed in whole or in part. The United States Office of Education has recently collected information on the estimated value of such non-salaried personal services for 1931-32 in twenty-eight junior colleges in the following sixteen states: California, Florida, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Michigan, Nebraska, New Hampshire, North Carolina, Oregon, South Dakota, Tennessee, and Texas. Following is a summary of this study:

	Number of Insti- tutions	Estimated Value of Services
Private:		
Baptist .....	3	\$ 12,000
Brethren in Christ.....	1	100
Free Methodist .....	3	28,350
Latter Day Saints.....	1	15,000
Methodist South .....	1	4,000
Presbyterian .....	2	8,523
Protestant Episcopal ...	1	2,000
Reformed .....	1	1,500
Roman Catholic .....	10	231,350
Nonsectarian .....	3	16,500
Total privately controlled.	26	\$319,323
Publicly controlled .....	2	5,800
Grand total .....	28	\$325,123

## JUNIOR COLLEGE COSTS

The cost of going to college has recently been made the subject of an extensive investigation by Walter J. Greenleaf, Specialist in Higher Education of the United States Office of Education. A summary of reports

received from 337 junior colleges is included in a report of the study in *Pamphlet No. 52* of the Office. From it we learn that in 150 public junior colleges which offer two years of college work tuition is free in 50, and averages \$82 in the remaining 90. The lowest amount of money which will cover the bare essentials of a freshman for nine months is estimated for various classes of institutions. In the state-supported four-year institutions the average is \$376, and with this amount the student may choose among some 55 state colleges, but in 39 other state institutions he must provide from \$500 to \$800. In the privately controlled institutions the minimum expense average is \$901 (women's colleges), \$818 (men's colleges), and \$600 (co-educational).

There are 130 denominationally controlled junior colleges in which minimum costs vary from \$324 (co-educational), \$393 (men's), to \$501 (women's). Extremes show, however, that it is possible for a man or a woman to attend some institutions on as little as \$200, while in one junior college for women \$1,025 is required. In the 47 privately controlled junior colleges, averages of minimum expenses are — men's \$900, women's \$993, and co-educational \$676; minimum expenses are below \$500 in four of these private institutions, but are above \$1,000 in twelve, and \$1,840 in one.

## SAN BERNARDINO CATALOGUE

The first catalogue of the San Bernardino Valley Junior College

issued under the presidency of Dr. Nicholas Ricciardi is a product of greater care and effort than is the case in many college catalogues. It is the result of co-operation which not only tends to produce a superior catalogue but doubtless has a healthy reflex influence on the part of all those who co-operated in its production. The preface to the catalogue contains the following significant statement:

This catalogue is the product of group thinking and co-operative efforts. It is in accord with the growing conviction that what we need today more than anything else to solve our problems is co-operative endeavor. More participants and fewer spectators are demanded today. In co-operative endeavor the best results are obtained when the participants develop a plan through group thinking and carry that plan into effect through group action. That is precisely what has been done in producing this catalogue. The members of the faculty, thinking together, formulated the aims of the San Bernardino Valley Junior College. The division chairmen, with the help of the faculty members, developed the materials included in the catalogue under each division caption. In short, all of the material in this catalogue represents the thinking of the faculty and of the administration in co-operative endeavor.

#### JUNIOR COLLEGES IN GEORGIA

The annual report from the regents of the University System of Georgia to the Governor of the State, January 22, 1934, contains the following junior college statement:

This new educational unit is a development of the past twenty-five years. During the last decade the spread of junior colleges has been very rapid, and there is no doubt but that this new institution will become a

permanent part of our educational system in Georgia. It may be that, in the distant future, this unit of education will be taken over by local communities and treated in the same manner as high schools. Such a probability is so remote that we are not concerned with it, and we treat junior colleges as a substantial and permanent part of our university system. We think it most important that we have junior colleges in this state, strategically located, so as to afford facilities at a reasonable cost both for those who wish to treat the junior college as a terminal course, and for those who will continue their work at a senior college. We are maintaining in this state junior colleges for white persons at Dahlonega, Tifton, Americus, Cochran, Douglas, and Carrollton; and for negroes at Albany and Forsyth. The regents reached the conclusion that we had too many four-year colleges in Georgia. We were unable to properly maintain them all. We, therefore, eliminated the Bowden State Normal and Industrial College at Bowden, Georgia, and established a junior college known as West Georgia College at Carrollton to serve our people in the western part of the state. We also abolished Georgia State College for Men at Tifton, Georgia, and established in its place a junior agricultural college known as Abraham Baldwin Agricultural College. In addition, we eliminated all senior college work at North Georgia College at Dahlonega.

#### MORGAN PARK JUNIOR COLLEGE

To fill a community need, the Morgan Park Military Academy trustees, after conferences with educators and representatives of various community associations, decided in 1933 to offer junior college courses. This department is non-military, and high-school graduates of both sexes will be admitted. The tuition charges are low: \$75 per semester.

The program is in direct accord with the original plan of William Rainey Harper of the University of Chicago, who, during his presidency, conducted the Academy as a part of the University. His program contemplated junior college courses at Morgan Park.

The Academy celebrated its sixtieth anniversary in 1933. The trustees have organized the Junior College as a part of the anniversary program in the service of young men and women, particularly those on the South Side of Chicago.

The several courses of study, the qualifications of the faculty, the requirements for admission of students, and the library and laboratory equipment have been planned with the greatest care to meet the standards set up by the University of Illinois and the University of Chicago.

The following extracts are taken from the announcement of the new junior college:

The junior college movement has been one of the most significant factors of recent years in the development of an American educational system. The present educational situation in Chicago is made more distressing because of the recent closing of Crane Junior College, which was the largest junior college in America. Graduates of Chicago high schools are clamoring for a chance to continue their education; the public school system is unable to accommodate them.

There is a natural break in the middle of the work of the conventional four-year college. President Harper long ago realized that the first two years of college should be concerned with general education and the last two years, together with the graduate and professional school, with specialized training. He was one of the first to encourage the establishment of jun-

ior colleges in America. It is entirely appropriate that the trustees of the Morgan Park Military Academy should conduct a junior college on the very campus where President Harper labored before he became the first president of the reorganized University of Chicago.

#### BUCKNELL JUNIOR COLLEGE

Bucknell University has leased the entire building at 29-31 West Northampton Street, Wilkes-Barre, Pennsylvania, for the use of the recently organized junior college. The purpose of the Bucknell University Junior College at Wilkes-Barre is to give students within commuting distance an opportunity to complete the first two years of a college curriculum while living at home, and to obtain the foundation of a broad cultural education. Students who so desire may then continue their college course at Bucknell University, or apply for admission to advanced standing in whatever college or university they may choose. The junior college offers the same opportunities for a liberal education that are offered on the campus at Lewisburg. The work of the two years in all courses is practically the same as that offered in the freshman and sophomore years at Bucknell University. The teaching staff is composed of members of the faculty of Bucknell University, fifteen of whom will be resident members at the junior college, while others will go from Lewisburg for certain courses. All of the work is under the direction of the faculty and administration of the University.

#### ANDERSON COLLEGE SERVICE

Anderson College is seeking to offer its students a wide variety of



courses so that foundation courses may be given for the professions, general courses for those wishing to pursue liberal arts courses, work in the fine arts both for those specializing in one particular field and for those who wish to enrich their courses by one or two subjects in the fine arts. There are also vocational courses open to students who will have only two years in college. These students represent about 50 per cent of the total enrollment of all of our colleges, and certainly deserve to have courses of study suited to their needs. — *Anderson (S.C.) Independent*

#### CALIFORNIA APPORTIONMENT

A total of \$1,650,707 was apportioned to the seventeen district junior colleges of California on September 10, 1934, from state funds. While the apportionment is supposed to amount to \$2,000 for each institution and \$100 per student in average daily attendance the previous year, the available funds were not quite sufficient to make up the amount called for by the average daily attendance of 17,126 students recorded for 1933-34. The actual apportionment amounted to \$94.44 per student instead of \$100. The state junior college fund is comprised of moneys derived from federal apportionments and biennial appropriations made by the Legislature to this fund. This year there was available in the State Junior College Fund for apportionment during the current school year one-half the total biennial appropriation made by the 1933 Legislature, or the sum of \$1,023,529; and the sum of \$627,178 received by federal apportionment to the fund during the current school year. This provided

a total of \$1,650,707, which amount was apportioned as indicated above. The largest apportionment went to Los Angeles Junior College, which received \$409,056 on account of an average daily attendance last year of 4,312.

#### NEW CALIFORNIA COLLEGE

At the meeting of the California State Board of Education, August 17, 1934, the Board granted conditional approval of the petition presented by the Oceanside-Carlsbad Union High School district requesting approval of the establishment of high-school postgraduate junior college courses. The petition was unanimously approved under the following conditions: (a) that approval be for one year only; (b) that the State Department of Education make a survey of the northern section of San Diego County for the purpose of determining junior college needs and the type of junior college service which would satisfy the needs, this survey to be completed by January 1, 1935; (c) the petition was approved on condition that before the program as inaugurated was allowed to continue another year the people of the district should be given opportunity by the Board to vote and express their wishes by ballot.

#### SAN FRANCISCO PLANS

Plans are being discussed for a public junior college in San Francisco. At present over 800 students from San Francisco are being forced to attend junior colleges outside of the county of San Francisco at a greater expense than would be necessary if they were kept in an institution in San Francisco, it is declared.

## Reports and Discussion

### ENGINEERING EDUCATION

A Junior College Section of the Society for the Promotion of Engineering Education held a two-day conference at the time of the forty-second annual meeting of the society at Cornell University in June 1934. The meetings were attended by junior college engineering instructors from all parts of the United States, by the deans of engineering of several universities, and by directors and instructors in technical institutes.

Engineering instructors in junior colleges have many interests and problems unique to their field and in common with their older brothers in senior engineering institutions and technical institutes. This was the basis for the conference. It was the first session of the kind held by the society. The interest shown and the problems discussed and left for future consideration point to a junior college division as a regular part of the society's future activities.

Two of the sessions were held jointly with the Conference on Freshman Guidance and Orientation and the Division of Drawing. Some of the topics presented and discussed were: General Engineering Departments and Engineering Problems Courses; Modified Science Courses; Engineering Courses Aiding Orientation; Semi-Professional Engineering Courses; Engineering Courses in Junior Colleges Viewed from the Technical Institute; Educational Requirements for Engineering Instructors in Junior Colleges; Homemade Apparatus for Materials-Testing Laboratories; Relation of the Engineering Department to the Other Departments in the Junior College; Engineering Courses for the Small Junior College; Relation of the Junior College to the Senior College; Experi-

ences with Junior Colleges by a Senior College; the Future of Engineering Education in Junior Colleges.

Besides the junior college conference there were other conferences during the week of the convention of direct interest to junior college people. Then there were the general sessions of the society at which topics of vital interest to all engineering educators were discussed.

Junior college engineering instructors who attended this meeting of the society had an excellent opportunity to become acquainted with men in engineering education, many of them outstanding leaders, and with the problems and progress in the advancement of this special branch of education. Besides the educators there were present a number of men from the industries. The total number registered at the convention was 1,132.

The society as a whole is becoming much interested in the junior college movement. It is probable that this subject will be on the general program next year. The next annual meeting of the society will be held at the Georgia Institute of Technology in June 1935.

The Junior College Committee of the society consists of the following: F. O. Rose, Modesto Junior College; A. C. Gough, University of Idaho; A. G. Gehrig, Pasadena Junior College; F. C. Bolton, Texas Agricultural and Mechanical College; H. H. Jordan, University of Illinois; and R. A. White, chairman, Grand Rapids Junior College.

R. A. WHITE, *Chairman*

GRAND RAPIDS JUNIOR COLLEGE  
GRAND RAPIDS, MICHIGAN

### REORGANIZATION IN CHICAGO

The Chicago Board of Education adopted a retrenchment order in July 1933 which among other curtailment

measures closed the junior college which had been in operation for a number of years. There was a vigorous popular protest against the closing of the junior college because of the obvious disadvantage to the students concerned and because of a general lack of confidence in the sincerity of the school board's intentions. Shortly before the schools opened in September of that year, there were rumors to the effect that the order closing the college would probably be rescinded, but this action was not taken and there were no free junior college classes during the year except those provided under the CWES.

During the ensuing school year, the superintendent labored diligently on a plan for the re-establishment of junior college opportunities as a part of the public-school program of the city. He was aided in his efforts by civic organizations and leaders in the field of education in the Chicago area. Last spring he presented to the Board of Education a proposal to open three junior college units in different sections of the city, each unit to provide a liberal program of general education for a thousand to fifteen hundred graduates of the city high schools. The new plan was frankly described as an experimental program involving large class instruction and intended to serve the primary purpose of affording extended opportunities to the youth of the city for the completion of an adequate program of general education. The superintendent's recommendation was accepted by the school board and authorization was given for opening the schools at the beginning of the school term in September 1934. The experiment was explained to the Commission on Higher Institutions of the North Central Association and a special advisory committee was authorized by that association to aid the superintendent in completing the plans of organization and the development of courses of instruction for these new schools.

The superintendent labored under some difficulties in making preparations for the opening of these schools. In the first place, it was obviously necessary to make use of existing school buildings since neither time nor money was available for the erection of new buildings for these units. It was necessary also for him to depend upon the voluntary services of teachers during vacation in the preparation of syllabi for the new courses to be offered. Finally, it was necessary to plan for the teaching staff and equipment on the basis of the most rigid economies because of the financial condition of the school district.

The schools opened on September 17 with an enrolment of about 3,600 pupils, 1,500 in each of the North and South Side units and about 600 in the West Side unit. Satisfactory building facilities were provided for the North and South Side units. On the West Side it was necessary to house the junior college in an old high-school building which is situated in a slum area. Many objections are still being heard concerning the location of this school. It happens to come within the area which is involved in the first slum clearance project to be carried out in this city under the federal appropriations for this purpose. This project is expected to clear the area in question of its objectionable features. While it was necessary to provide the equipment for these schools without much additional expenditure of money, it is reported that the schools are adequately equipped except with respect to the library materials in one or two of the units.

The significant feature of the reorganized program is the establishment of general courses in the major fields of study, the social sciences, the physical and biological sciences, and the humanities. These courses were planned after careful study of such programs as those maintained at the universities of Chicago and Minnesota. There are some classes of more than 500 pupils.

A sufficient number of advanced specialized courses are provided to permit students preparing for advanced study to meet entrance requirements of the institutions they expect to attend.

This experiment in connection with the second largest city school system in the country will be watched with no little interest by superintendents and other educators. In spite of the handicaps under which the schools were opened, present indications are that the program has a good prospect of succeeding in its major purposes. Much credit is due the members of the teaching staff who devoted many days during the summer vacation to study and planning for the new program and who have taken up their new responsibilities with obvious enthusiasm and courage. While it is too early yet to determine what the reactions of the student body will finally be, it is reported that they are co-operating with the faculties in a very satisfactory manner. More definite indications of the outcome of this experiment can only be presented after the program has progressed for some more significant portion of the school year.

NELSON B. HENRY

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION  
UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

#### SPEECH-JOURNALISM WEEK

To the skeptics who doubt the advisability of a Speech-Journalism Week in a junior college the result of such an experience in Little Rock Junior College, Arkansas, should go a long way toward convincing them of the feasibility.

The instructors in speech and journalism conceived a plan to crowd into one week concentrated attention on both the written and spoken word. The program was so arranged that students not taking work in the departments could share in the activity as well as citizens of the community who were particularly interested in these phases of work.

The College Crier announced over two radio stations Monday afternoon and night the details of the week's celebration, which was to begin the following day. During Tuesday morning classes, students in public speaking visited each class, speaking on some topical subject, weaving into their talks details of the week's activities, and calling attention to the display of awards in the trophy case, which had been presented by friends of the college to be given students who excelled in acting, directing, poetry reading, column writing, news story, editing, etc. Tuesday afternoon came the debate contest at which time the outstanding debater was selected, and that night three one-act plays were staged. Judges were in the audience to select the students who did the best acting and to choose the play that was most effectively directed. The poetry reading contest, the next afternoon, was one of the high points of the week.

The extempore speaking contest was the next contest on the week's schedule. Two months before the contest a list of current magazines was posted with announcement that the material for the extempore speaking contest topics would be selected from these. Two weeks before the contest a list of ten subjects was posted, taken from the material in these magazines. Thirty minutes before the speaking time, a student drew a topic and prepared for the presentation.

On Friday the morning assembly featured the head of the department of journalism from Arkansas University, Professor W. J. Lemke. Friday night came the clever three-act play that won for its cast the audience's approval and remarks that it was the most professional work yet done by the junior college. The week closed Saturday night at a formal reception when all winners were announced to the guests in the receiving line.

Exhibits on display at the college were scenic and costume designing, newspapers, and a varied assortment

of printed matter. Posters heralded the coming of the week and announced each day's activities.

Besides being a week of interesting activity to all students, as the contests were open both for participating and listening, certain benefits were derived, some of the notable ones being listed as: (1) giving good advertising to the college as the local press responded to activities (one local paper gave the trophy for the best all-round journalist, and both served as judges in the journalism contests); (2) giving students in the department the privilege of campus leadership for one week; (3) establishing honors that will tend to raise standard of work through student competition (trophies being of such a nature that names can be engraved on them for consecutive years); (4) making students on the campus conscious of the value of both the written and spoken word; (5) cultivating further interest in the work among the students already enrolled in the departments; (6) raising the work of the departments in estimation of those who have doubted the advisability of such departments existing in an institution of junior college rank.

HELEN HALL

LITTLE ROCK JUNIOR COLLEGE  
LITTLE ROCK, ARKANSAS

#### POLITICAL SCIENCE SOCIETY

Unless all signs fail, the coming generation should have a more healthy attitude toward government and politics than its predecessor. The factor that very largely causes this difference is simply interest in these subjects. Governor Wilbur Cross of Connecticut said recently in an article in *The Forum* (April 1932)

I believe that never before have American college graduates had so good a preliminary equipment for public office as they have today. In my own undergraduate days, college students were as a rule but little interested in public questions. We rarely discussed them. Go now anywhere

you please among groups of students and you will find them debating the financial crisis here and in Great Britain or Franco-German relations. They talk about war debts, the Far Eastern situation, Fascism, the latest news from Russia. Both our national depression and our increasing concern in foreign affairs are turning the attention of students and young graduates toward American political and economic questions.

This tendency is as evident in the junior colleges as in the universities. Courses in political science and economics, which, not long ago, were not very numerous and were rather limited in scope, are becoming more and more popular. Discussion groups, debating societies, and political science clubs are thriving as never before.

An excellent illustration is Rho Delta Epsilon, the national junior college honorary political science society. This organization was founded in 1931 by a group of six politically minded students and a faculty member of the Los Angeles Junior College. Rho, Delta, and Epsilon are the initial letters of what they considered the highest ideals of good government—Responsibility, Democracy, and Efficiency. Qualifications for membership in the society are superior scholarship in political science and a wholesome, genuine interest in politics and government.

Activities of the group include the securing of prominent speakers to address the group on varied fields of government, discussions and open forums among the students themselves on political questions, and the formation of a library of books and pamphlets on political science. Recently the members of the society became members of the Municipal League of Los Angeles. They are looking forward with great anticipation to participating in the work of the League, including service on its various committees.

This society is unique in that it very definitely encourages not only study and discussion of political and social problems but also the ultimate prac-



tical application of the knowledge thus gained. Rho Delt, as the members call it, aims to prepare the student, not only to be an intelligent voter, but to be a leader as well. As Governor Cross says: "The next step should be to translate intention into action. . . . From my brief experience in state government, I have learned one thing that our democracy needs today above all others. It is the energy of intelligent, aggressive, and well-trained young men and women in practical efforts for the public welfare." To supply this need is the whole aim and purpose of Rho Delta Epsilon.

That such an organization has an appeal to youth is shown by the rapid increase in its membership. Beginning with six, there are now well over one hundred members. Chapters are located at Los Angeles, Compton, and Glendale junior colleges in California and at Ouachita Parish Junior College, Monroe, Louisiana. Graduate chapters are found at University of California at Los Angeles and University of Southern California. The national offices are located at the Los Angeles Junior College, Los Angeles, California. Miss Jane Goodale, 1007 El Paso Avenue, Los Angeles, is national secretary.

Rho Delta Epsilon is receiving applications for incorporation of other chapters in junior colleges throughout the country and looks forward to a strong, nation-wide organization that will be a really effective force for good government.

ELMER WILLIAMS

LOS ANGELES JUNIOR COLLEGE  
LOS ANGELES, CALIFORNIA

#### COLLEGE AND COMMUNITY OPERA

The music master in Molière's beautiful comedy *Le Bourgeois Gentilhomme* asserts that there is nothing so useful in a state as music; that music possesses the great social virtue of keeping men in better harmony and, thereby, tends to assure the universal reign of peace in the world.

While it must be admitted that professional people, generally, have an exaggerated and perhaps exalted notion about the importance of their particular calling, yet there is no denying the fact that music plays an important part in life and is of great social value. Nearly all our educational institutions have recognized that important fact, and there is now scarcely a school or college in the country which does not offer some courses in music.

The Riverside Junior College (California), in particular, has long recognized the great social utility of music, and, in a quiet and modest way, it has striven to assume leadership in that important field of human endeavor. Our various glee clubs have gone, during the last few years, to nearly every town, village, and hamlet in the county of Riverside to bring even into the remote desert regions the charm of popular ditties and the exhilarating rapture of simple folk songs. Our music students have entertained large audiences at Sunday afternoon park concerts, at public or political meetings and assemblies, at church functions and private affairs.

Encouraged by success, the Riverside Junior College last year took a bold step by introducing a course in opera production in which the college students and the community as a whole might participate. Co-operation in carrying out this plan came from a variety of sources. The Riverside Board of Education exemplified public generosity by purchasing a beautiful private residence for the uses of musical instruction. Music-loving members of the various service clubs in town joined enthusiastically the college opera organization. Business and professional people appreciative of the finer things of life promised active support in a number of ways.

The opera organization work provided an outlet for the creative energies of people of varied talents: publicity men, scenery painters, costume de-

signers, stage operators, make-up artists, properties craftsmen, etc. Old and young flocked to the rehearsals. A chorus of nearly three hundred voices was enlisted.

The interest and enthusiasm of hundreds of adults has made possible the production of several beautiful opera performances. The operas presented were *Pagliacci*, *Tannhauser*, *Don Pasquale*, and *Il Trovatore*. While a small admission charge was made, yet we had an average attendance of 950 persons. A desire on the part of opera goers to learn the correct pronunciation of foreign words increased somewhat the enrollment in our French classes and brought about the organization of a class in Italian. That class is one of the most interesting in the department of foreign languages, as it is composed mainly of mature students fired by a real desire to learn that beautiful language.

Our college and community opera association has undeniably afforded to hundreds of people an opportunity to spend their leisure time in a most useful way; it has improved the relations between the college and the community; it has helped students to continue their education by singing their way through college; it has given thousands of people a deeper understanding of some of the finest and noblest human emotions; it has given a chance to people of various capabilities, talents, and eccentricities to express themselves in various activities of special interest; and it has enhanced the prestige of our college by bringing it closer to the people.

J. K. RICHARDS

*Instructor of French and Italian*

RIVERSIDE JUNIOR COLLEGE  
RIVERSIDE, CALIFORNIA

#### OCCUPATIONAL ADJUSTMENT

Junior College educators interested in problems of occupational adjustment will be interested to know of the ser-

vices available to them through the National Occupational Conference, which provides for educational institutions, libraries, and other interested organizations, a consulting service regarding the theory and practice of vocational guidance, and the results of research in occupational adjustment. Upon request a staff officer of the conference will visit local institutions for consultation regarding the organization of work designed to contribute to the better occupational adjustment of more than one person. The conference will contribute the services of staff officers for such trips, but will expect local institutions to defray the necessary expenses. No charge is made for any assistance which can be given by mail. The work of the conference does not include counseling with individuals regarding their personal occupational problems.

Single copies of the following mimeographed bulletins are distributed without charge: "A Short List of Books on the Theory and Practice of Vocational Guidance," "A Short List of Books on College Personnel Work," "A Short List of Textbooks for Courses in Occupations," "A Short List of References on Guidance through the Home Room," "Occupational Research," "Suggestions to Students Who Are to Interview Workers," "Suggestions for Group Conferences on Occupations between Students and Workers," "A Short List of Colleges Which Offer Training Courses for Guidance Workers."

For any of the foregoing, address National Occupational Conference, 522 Fifth Ave., New York.

#### THIRTY YEARS' GROWTH

An inquiry was received recently from one of the national educational foundations for a summary of information regarding the growth in enrollment of the junior college during the past thirty years. The information as-

sembled for this purpose may be of interest to readers of the *Journal*. significant data for the past thirty years for both public and private institutions

TABLE I  
ENROLLMENT IN JUNIOR COLLEGES IN THE UNITED STATES DURING  
THE PAST THIRTY YEARS

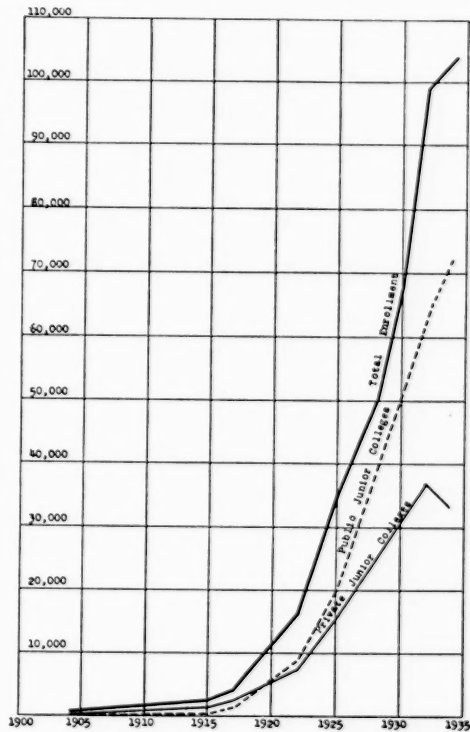
Year	Total Enrollment	In Public Junior Colleges	In Private Junior Colleges	Total Institutions	Source of Data
1904.....	500-1,000*	.....	.....	...	Eells
1914-15.....	2,363	592	1,771	74	McDowell
1916-17.....	3,959	1,587	2,372	74	McDowell
1922.....	16,121	8,439	7,682	207	Koos
1927.....	35,630	20,145	15,485	325	Koos
1928.....	50,529	.....†	.....†	408	Campbell
1930.....	67,627	.....†	.....†	429	Campbell
1932.....	99,476	62,799	36,677	473	Campbell-Eells
1934.....	105,457	72,100	33,357	519	Campbell-Eells

\* Estimated. See text for basis.

† Not segregated.

Unfortunately, such information cannot be furnished with complete accuracy, since the figures available have been collected by different agencies using different definitions of "junior college" and of "students" and securing varying co-operation from the junior colleges of the country so that the resulting data are not entirely comparable. Furthermore, no authentic data on a national basis are in existence for the period prior to 1914-15. It is probably safe to estimate, however, that the enrollment thirty years ago, in 1904, was less than 1,000 and probably less than 500 students in bona fide junior colleges. It was only a little over 2,000 in 1914-15 as reported by McDowell in his doctoral dissertation, the first national study in the field. Only two of the present public junior colleges (Joliet and North Dakota School of Science) were in existence in 1904, and perhaps a half dozen of the private institutions on a real junior college basis, and the enrollments in none of them were large. Probably few, if any, had as many as 100 students. The really significant growth of the junior college movement has occurred in the past twenty years.

Table I summarizes some of the more



Junior College Growth, 1904-34

and indicates their source. They are also shown graphically in the figure.

WALTER C. EELLS

## Judging the New Books

*Trends and Issues Affecting Lutheran Higher Education.* Augsburg Publishing House, Minneapolis. 1933. 79 pages.

This is Volume I, Number 1, of a series of Studies in Lutheran Higher Education. It is the work of a committee of Lutheran educators under the chairmanship of Dr. O. H. Pannkoke. Dr. G. A. Works acted as adviser to the committee, which did the greater part of its work at the University of Chicago.

The primary purpose of the volume is apparently not to answer all the questions confronting Lutheran colleges so much as to suggest, focus attention upon, and clarify some of these questions and to stimulate further study and more extended analysis of them. It presents a thoughtful discussion of the present trends and movements of a social and economic type and their implications as regards higher education. The traditional position of the Lutheran church and the Lutheran college are considered. Possible adjustments to meet changing conditions are suggested.

The growing importance of the junior college as an instrument of higher education is stressed at various points throughout the study. This is not surprising in view of the keen interest of the Lutheran church in this type of school. In fact, it is shown in the present study that eight of the twenty higher institutions of the American Lutheran Conference in the United States are junior colleges.

Upper- and lower-division cur-

ricula are proposed, the lower to be offered in all institutions and the upper in the four-year colleges. The lower division curriculum is outlined in some detail and includes general exploratory and cultural studies as well as some tool subjects. The offering of a few terminal vocational curricula on the junior college level is recommended for the benefit of persons who will not complete a four-year course. A considerable amount of free election is proposed for upper-division students, the system of majors and minors being strongly favored.

Problems of selection of teachers for church colleges, selection and guidance of students, the place of tests and measurements, and the possibilities of closer co-operation among Lutheran colleges are also given place in the study, which makes a real contribution to the literature of denominational higher education.

HENRY G. BADGER

UNITED STATES OFFICE OF EDUCATION  
WASHINGTON, D.C.

### NEW BOOKS RECEIVED

RACINE, *Andromaque—Britannicus* —*Phèdre* (Introduction by H. C. Lancaster, Notes by E. A. Meras). Scribners. 247 pages.

HELEN M. WALKER, *Mathematics Essential for Elementary Statistics*. Henry Holt and Company. 246 pages.

W. A. WHATLEY and R. A. HAYNES (Editors), *La Locura de Amor*. Silver Burdett Company. 214 pages.

## Bibliography on Junior Colleges\*

2691. STAGER, HENRY M., "Comparative Study of the Achievement of Junior College Transfers in Certain Subjects," *California Quarterly of Secondary Education* (June 1934), IX, 340-49.

A statistical study of the records of 448 junior college transfers and 369 transfers from four-year institutions at Stanford University. The study is divided into two parts. In the first, records in specific subjects in the four main fields, English, modern foreign language, social science, and physical science, form the basis of comparison. In the second, complete records in the eight schools of Stanford University form the basis. "Our results show that the junior college transfers occupy a middle position for both sexes and that as a whole their achievement was normal."

2692. THOMPSON, MERRITT M., *An Outline of the History of Education*, New York, 1933, 157 pages.

Another volume in the Barnes and Noble "College Outline Series." Covers entire history of education in outline form. Includes inadequate treatment in summary form of the junior college, its development, status, and purposes (pp. 95-96). Erroneous statement that first junior college was established at Fresno, California (p. 152).

2693. WATERMAN, IVAN R., "Problems and Practices in Housing the Junior College Program in California," *California Schools* (August 1934), V, 291-92.

Review of book by Cecil D. Hardesty. See no. 2666.

2694. ALEXANDER, C., and STUDY, H. P., "What Should Be the Objectives, Scope, and Delimiting Principles of a Satisfactory Educational Program

\* This is a continuation of *Bibliography on Junior Colleges*, by Walter C. Eells (United States Office of Education Bulletin [1930], No. 2), which contained the first 1,600 titles of this numbered sequence. Assistance is requested from authors of publications which should be included.

for Students of Junior College and College Levels?" *National Education Association, Department of Superintendence, Official Report* (1934), 185 pages.

"Present trends are forcing large numbers of youth to remain in school until the age of twenty. Consequently the junior college rather than the present senior high school will tend to provide the last full-time liberal education that increasing proportions of youth will ever receive."

2695. BARNARD, PAULINE M., "Does P.E.O. Need Cottey College?" *P.E.O. Record* (October 1933), XLV, 15.

Plea for support of Cottey College as a unifying influence for the P.E.O. sisterhood.

2696. BARTON, J. W., "Junior College," *Parents Magazine* (August 1934), IX, 9.

2697. BERRY, EDITHA, "A Report on Educational Projects," *P.E.O. Record* (October 1933), XLV, 19.

Discussion of the significance and value of Cottey College, Missouri, to the organization.

2698. BOEHMER, FLORENCE E., "Cottey's Program of Development," *P.E.O. Record* (November 1933), XLV, 7-9, 26.

A comprehensive statement by the president of Cottey College, Missouri.

2699. BOEHMER, FLORENCE E., "A Letter from the President of Cottey College," *P.E.O. Record* (December 1933), XLV, 10.

"I am proud and happy to have the privilege of working with a woman's organization that has dreamed daringly and that is not afraid to undertake a big task."

2700. CAMPBELL, ELIZABETH M., "A Teacher Looks at Cottey," *P.E.O. Record* (October 1933), XLV, 12-13.

Impressions by a member of the faculty of Cottey College, Missouri.

2701. CARNEGIE FOUNDATION FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF TEACHING, *Twenty-eighth Annual Report of the Presi-*



dent and of the Treasurer, New York (1932), 189 pages.

Contains discussion of the junior college (pp. 6-7, 91).

2702. CARPENTER, W. W., "Recent Developments in Junior College Administration," *National Education Association Proceedings* (1933), pp. 523-24.

Abstract of address before Department of Secondary School Principals. See No. 2430.

2703. CHRISTIAN EDUCATION, "Report on Junior Colleges," *Christian Education* (May 1921), IV, 34-36.

Report adopted at the meeting of the National Conference Committee on Standards for Colleges and Secondary Schools.

2704. HAGGARD, W. W., "Growth of the Junior College," *Illinois Teacher* (November 1933), XXII, 69+.

2705. HANCOCK, J. L., and SMITH, R. R., "Why a Junior College?" *Chicago School Journal* (January 1933), XV, 105-9.

Gives much information on the functions and services of Crane Junior College, Chicago.

2706. HERTZLER, SILAS, "Attendance at Mennonite Schools and Colleges in 1932-33," *Mennonite Quarterly Review* (October 1933), VII, 251-60.

Includes attendance data on students in four Mennonite junior colleges.

2707. HURT, HUBERT W., and HURT, HARRIETT-JEANNE, *The 1933 College Blue Book* (Third Edition), Hollywood-by-the-Sea, Florida (1933), 588 pages.

The standard college reference work. Contains much information on junior colleges. Section on "Junior Colleges" (pp. 189-233) includes summary of distribution, tabulation of junior college standards, and statistical information of 487 individual junior colleges. Also a series of state maps (pp. 425-519) showing location of each junior college.

2708. JOURNAL OF EDUCATION, "Chicago's Junior Colleges," *Journal of Education* (September 3, 1934), CXVII, 362.

Quotation from Superintendent W. J. Bogan characterizing the new plan for three institutions.

2709. KEESECKER, WARD W., "A Review of Educational Legislation, 1931 and

1932" (United States Office of Education Bulletin, No. 2, 1933), *Biennial Survey of Education, 1930-32*.

Includes review of noteworthy legislation affecting junior colleges in Arizona, California, Nebraska, North Dakota, and Utah.

2710. KEESECKER, W. W., and SEWELL, R. C., "Legal and Regulatory Provisions Affecting Secondary Education" (United States Office of Education Bulletin, No. 17, 1932), *National Survey of Secondary Education, Monograph*, No. 9.

Includes summary of public junior college legislation in various states (pp. 39-44), with special emphasis on provisions of the Nebraska law.

2711. LIMBERT, PAUL M., *Denominational Policies in the Support and Supervision of Higher Education* (Teachers College Contribution to Education, No. 378), New York (1929), 241 pages.

Doctoral dissertation at Columbia University. Contains numerous references to denominational junior colleges.

2712. MOORE, R. L., "The Teacher, the Solution of Our Problem," *Bulletin of the Department of Secondary School Principals* (March 1934), No. 50, pp. 65-70.

A plea for finding worthy junior college teachers and making conditions most favorable for their successful teaching.

2713. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, "A Self Survey Plan for State School Systems," *Research Bulletin of the National Education Association* (May 1930), VIII, 154-55.

Answers the questions, Why should it be legal to spend public funds for public junior colleges? and Why should the law which provides for the establishment of local junior colleges fix minimum prerequisites in terms of financial resources or enrollment? Also gives brief bibliography on each question.

2714. NEW JERSEY, STATE OF, *Fifth Annual Report of the New Jersey State Board of Regents*, Trenton, New Jersey (1934), 39 pages.

Includes discussion of junior college needs of the state (pp. 21-27). Reprinted in part in *Junior College Journal* (October 1934), V, 43-44.